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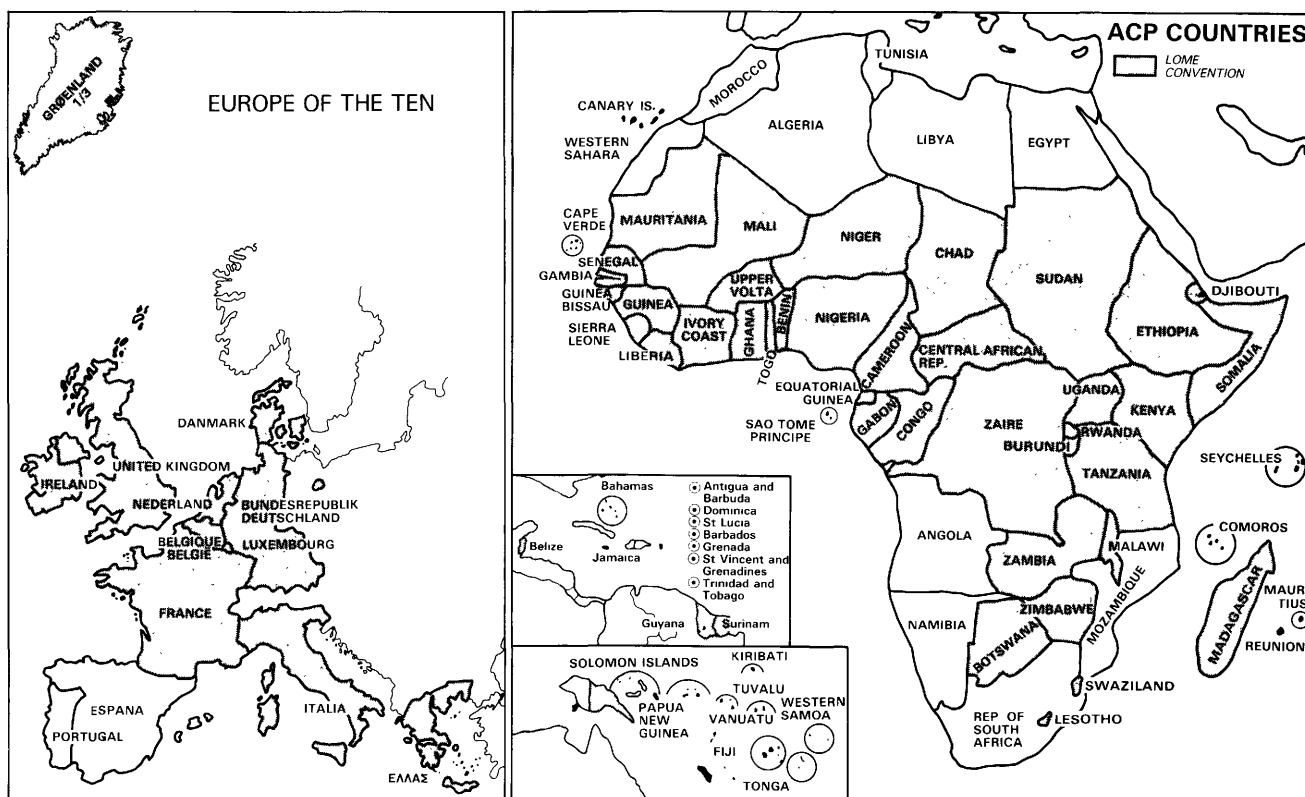
URBAN PLANNING

THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

BELGIUM
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GREECE
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ITALY
LUXEMBOURG
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THE ACP STATES

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BAHAMAS	GUINEA	SEYCHELLES
BARBADOS	GUINEA BISSAU	SIERRA LEONE
BELIZE	GUYANA	SOLOMON ISLANDS
BENIN	IVORY COAST	SOMALIA
BOTSWANA	JAMAICA	SUDAN
BURUNDI	KENYA	SURINAM
CAMEROON	KIRIBATI	SWAZILAND
CAPE VERDE	LESOTHO	TANZANIA
CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC	LIBERIA	TOGO
CHAD	MADAGASCAR	TONGA
COMOROS	MALAWI	TRINIDAD & TOBAGO
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DOMINICA	MAURITIUS	UPPER VOLTA
EQUATORIAL GUINEA	NIGER	WESTERN SAMOA
ETHIOPIA	NIGERIA	VANUATU
FIJI	PAPUA NEW GUINEA	ZAIRE
GABON	RWANDA	ZAMBIA
GAMBIA	ST LUCIA	ZIMBABWE
GHANA	ST VINCENT & GRENADINES	
	SAO TOME PRINCIPE	



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(Overseas departments)

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Guiana
Martinique
Reunion
St Pierre and Miquelon

(Overseas territories)

Mayotte
New Caledonia and dependencies
French Polynesia
French Southern and Antarctic Territories
Wallis and Futuna Islands

NETHERLANDS

(Overseas countries)

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(Aruba, Bonaire, Curaçao, St Martin, Saba,
St Eustatius)

UNITED KINGDOM

(Overseas countries and territories)

Anguilla
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British Indian Ocean Territory
British Virgin Islands
Brunei
Cayman Islands
Falkland Islands and dependencies
Montserrat
Pitcairn Island
St Helena and dependencies
St Kitts & Nevis
Turks and Caicos Islands

This list does not prejudice the status of these countries and territories now or in the future.

The Courier uses maps from a variety of sources. Their use does not imply recognition of any particular boundaries nor prejudice the status of any state or territory.

Cover — Views of Harare (Zimbabwe), above, and Bombay (India). Seen from any angle, the sprawl of destitution surrounding Third World cities is proof of the failure of a certain kind of urban development and land management (Photo Bombay: ICEF 9333)

ACP-EEC — Before the negotiations on a new convention between the ACP countries and the Community, the *Courier* presents a series of interviews and statements by ACP and EEC figures on the importance for each group of an agreement which should constitute an important step forward in the spirit and practice of co-operation. The relative failure of UNCTAD VI further highlights the interest and the scope of the negotiations which start on 6 October between more than 60 countries and the 10 member states of the European Community. **Pages 2-10**



Tanzania — Tanzania is internationally known as a leading member of the non-aligned movement, a front-line state in the battle to rid Africa of racism and as the proponent of a particular kind of socialism known as Ujamaa. The country's political influence is, however, much greater than its economic strength. One of the countries most seriously affected by the current recession, Tanzania is finding it hard to put its economy in order and safeguard the progress of over 20 years of independence. **Pages 13-32**

Togo — The President of the Republic of Togo, General G. Eyadéma, made an official visit to Belgium and the EEC Commission at the end of June. He gave new impetus to cooperation between the two countries and, in the Community context, confirmed his backing for the Lomé Convention model of ACP-EEC cooperation. President Eyadéma nonetheless felt the next convention would have to find far-reaching solutions to the inadequacies of the present agreement. **Pages 33-34**



Dossier — The ACP countries are becoming increasingly urban. The rapid spread of the towns causes many economic, social and political problems. Our dossier looks at the issues raised by urban development and land use in the ACP and other Third World countries, which lack the financial and technical means to cope with an apparently irreversible phenomenon. The sprawling shanty districts can blight national economic development in general and bring many social and human problems. **Pages 50-97**

The Arts — The return of works of art to their countries of origin is an issue which has been raised several times in the *Courier*. It is a complicated question which will take time to settle, and it is not only a matter of ACP-EEC cultural cooperation — within Europe itself the return of such cultural artefacts raises a number of difficulties. Who can really be said to "own" famous works of art that have changed hands many times during the war-torn course of history? **Pages 100-102**



THE COURIER

**AFRICA - CARIBBEAN - PACIFIC
— EUROPEAN COMMUNITY**

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Lomé — a retrospective

by Dieter FRISCH,
director-general for development at the
Commission of the European Communities

With negotiations for a new ACP-EEC convention imminent, this is naturally a time for looking forward and speculating on the future course of events. Yet I would like to look back for a moment, to retrace our joint endeavour over the years.

These days, people tend to lose sight of historical perspectives; for a European of my generation, haunted by the memory of the last war, it is upsetting to see how the building of the European Community can be reduced to the level of wrangles over the budget, however important the financial problems may be. Similarly, it shows a failure of historic vision to reduce the ACP-EEC relationship, which has transformed centuries of domination into a true partnership, to a squabble over Community imports of a few tonnes of grain or strawberries, however important trade matters are and however convinced we may be that cooperation is meaningless unless it addresses the day-to-day problems of development.

At the root of our cooperation lies a "historic accident". It is hard now to envisage what the Community's relations with the Third World might have been like had France not insisted in 1957, as the negotiations for the Treaty of Rome entered their final stage, that there be an organic relationship between the future Community and the then "overseas countries and territories". It is no secret that some of France's European partners would have given a great deal to be spared such a share in the colonial legacy, but the French stood their ground.

Without the resulting "association"—an ambiguous term, an irritant, until 1973, to the countries of the Commonwealth—there would undoubtedly never have been such a thing as the Yaoundé Convention. Only the fact of such a relationship could prompt the Community to conclude a novel form of cooperation

convention with 17 African countries—all francophone except Somalia—and Madagascar, which had gained their independence in the early 1960s. Even then there were once again those within the Community who would have preferred to abandon the "narrow regional approach" to this handful of countries, thought too insignificant to convey the relationship between the Community and the developing world as a whole, and opt instead for a "global" policy.

In fact, however, it was hardly open to the Community to choose between the "regional" development policy and a global one, for a global policy would have meant spreading the resources than available to the Six very thin indeed.

With hindsight, it is a good thing that the Yaoundé partners stood firm. It was from these modest beginnings that a comprehensive policy was to be built up.

The Yaoundé relationship was not without its critics, of course. It was repeatedly accused of driving a wedge into Africa, or the Third World as a whole. Nor was the position within international forums of the 18 countries associated with the Community always a comfortable one; they must often have felt tempted to give up their preferential ties to the Community for the sake of solidarity with the other developing countries.

Luckily, they stuck it out, because without Yaoundé, Lomé could never have seen the light of day.

When the United Kingdom joined the Community, a protocol—Protocol 22—was at its insistence appended to the Act of Accession to offer those Commonwealth countries which were economically and structurally "comparable" to the Yaoundé members a choice of three formulas: they could join in the renegotiation of the Yaoundé Convention, due to expire in 1975; they could conclude preferential trade agreements ("Arusha-type" agreements, like the one which linked the Community with the three countries of East Africa); or they could negotiate ordinary trade agreements.

It took the Community a while to appreciate that it had made a political error in offering these countries—the



Lomé I ACP negotiators in Brussels: right, Nigerian Ambassador Olu Sanu
"Until the last minute it was not known whether the newly oil-rich Nigeria (this was in 1973), occupying the presidency of the OAU, intended to join in the new venture or not. What an event when it did!"

future ACP group—what they regarded as a choice of three off-the-peg, take-it-or-leave-it packages: Yaoundé as it stood, Arusha as it stood, or a “non-preferential trade agreement”, whatever that was.

The result was a year of uncertainty and hesitations which led to a watershed in African affairs and the formation of the ACP group. A total of 43 countries (*), from Africa—and not only those which had been in Yaoundé, not only those covered by Protocol 22, but Sudan, Ethiopia, Liberia, Guinea as well—the Caribbean



Dieter Frisch

“Without Yaoundé, Lomé could never have seen the light of day”

and the Pacific sat down to negotiations with the community. They rejected the three hard-and-fast formulas and called for a new, wider approach open to the whole group: for comprehensive negotiations, in which the positive achievements of Yaoundé would be taken as read but everything would be on the bargaining table.

Until the last minute it was not known whether the newly oil-rich Nigeria (this was in 1973), occupying the presidency of the OAU, intended to join the new venture or not. What an event when it did! Nigeria's decision to come to the negotiating table with the ACP group, and the prominent and influential part it played in the talks, were of major importance.

Had it not done so at that crucial juncture, Africa might well have—it nearly did—split down the middle

(*) The ACP Group now comprises 63 countries.

ACP-EEC Council of Ministers in the Egmont Palace, Brussels, 1976, co-chaired by George A. King (Guyana) for the ACP countries and Max Van Der Stoel (Netherlands) for the EEC

“It is the very scale of the Lomé enterprise and the diversity it encompasses that have given it the political importance, the ‘critical mass’ needed to launch cooperation onto another plane”



into French-speaking and English-speaking, or “progressive” and “conservative”, camps, with the Caribbean and Pacific countries out on a separate limb. No cooperation based on such divisions could ever have lasted.

It is the very scale of the Lomé enterprise and the diversity it encompasses that have given it the political importance, the “critical mass” needed to launch cooperation onto another plane.

There are these who claim that a preferential policy of this sort has left the other developing countries, particularly those of Asia and Latin America, out in the cold. But that is not quite what has happened: the very impact externally of the special ACP-EEC relationship and the expectations it aroused in other countries have led the Community gradually to introduce substantial commercial and financial cooperation programmes with so-called non-associated countries (a slight misnomer: the term “associated countries” was rejected by the English-speaking countries in 1973, but “non-associated” has lived on). Today, in fact, India is the

major recipient of Community aid in financial terms. Our ACP partners can claim credit for being, indirectly, the cause of the geographical spread—but not at their own expense—of Community cooperation.

The Community itself also owes a good deal to Lomé. Racked by internal problems, it has often found a focus of unity in its relations with the countries of the Third World. Such a pull towards integration could be felt even when one member state was conducting the “politique de la chaise vide” in Brussels, as all the Community flags were run up together in Africa when an EDF project was launched. Development policy has become a cornerstone of European integration.

These few words have been intended not just as the reminiscences of an old ACP hand, but to put the forthcoming negotiations in their full historical perspective and encourage us to enter on them with a clear-sighted, steady determination to succeed.

Let it not be said that we couldn't see the wood for the trees! o

DIETER FRISCH

Dr Ghebray Berhane,
chairman of the ACP Committee
of Ambassadors

"It is important to find a suitable balance to the satisfaction of both parties"

Dr Ghebray Berhane, Ethiopian ambassador and currently chairman of the ACP Committee of Ambassadors, looks ahead in this interview at the prospects for the forthcoming ACP-EEC negotiations and reaffirms the desire of the ACP states to achieve an agreement satisfactory to them not only in terms of its content but also with regard to its implementation machinery.

"Europe's lack of comprehension"

► *The ACP states are disappointed at the outcome of the special session on Stabex. Is this because they have lacked enough weight in the negotiations to push home their demands?*

— No, I don't think so, because the outcome of the negotiations cannot be judged solely on the basis of a single session, a single meeting. What we fear is that the cumulative effect of this frustration could lead to something which we would like to avoid at all costs. If, at each meeting, our European partners always react in the same fashion, the ACP states may eventually come to feel that they are being misunderstood or even rejected. At all events, I can assure you that what you see is not incapacity or weakness on the part of the ACP states; on the contrary, it is Europe's lack of comprehension, which we noted at the most recent session.

Three claims common to all the ACP states

► *The ACP states wish to be a coherent and unified entity. But how, in view of their great diversity, can*



Ghebray Berhane

they keep their demands within a reasonable focus?

— It is very remarkable, and even extraordinary, that 63 ACP states, despite the diversity of their interests, do in fact have a certain singleness of view. How is this so? It is because the demands of the ACP states centre on three key issues; it is not at all true to say that with 63 countries there are necessarily 63 different demands. Let me cite these three common concerns: firstly, development aid proper, which is seen by all as their prime concern; secondly, access to the Community market, which is also seen as absolutely essential; and, finally, the famous Stabex. Everything else is complementary, but ACP thinking revolves around these three questions. So it is wrong to say that because there are a large number of countries, their interests and concerns will be fragmented and multiplied,

because we can reduce all these concerns to these three central issues. And if solutions are found to these questions, I can assure you that virtually every country will be satisfied.

► *Regarding the first of these central issues, development aid—in other words, financial and technical cooperation—the ACP states have often considered the financial resources made available under the Convention to be inadequate. What figure would you see as more appropriate?*

— We have not calculated a suitable figure and we are not at all keen to enter into what may be a pointless and sterile discussion. What we on the ACP side have always said is that there should be a correspondence or link between the ACP states' needs, in quantified terms, and the aid accorded by the Community. There is no point in the ACP states presenting figures only to find that absolutely no account of these is taken by the Community. At present, this is all we can say on the subject, except that we are working on the problem with that aim of shedding some real light on it.

► *Would you say that, when it comes to fixing the amount of aid, the Community takes its decisions somewhat in isolation and does not sufficiently consult the ACP states?*

— Absolutely. This is precisely what has happened and our current wish is to avoid the same thing happening now again. There must be a basis and some criteria by which the amount of aid will be fixed.

► *Even in the context of economic recession?*

— Of course. At all events, all factors must be taken into account. Account must be taken of all factors, present and potential.

Divergence on freedom of access to the Community market

► *On the question of access to the Community market, over 99 % of ACP exports already have free access; one is tempted to ask what more do you want?*

— I think there is a misunderstanding, which has gone on too long in our view. When one says that over 99 % of ACP products have free access to the Community market, it is necessary to say straightaway that this figure of 99 % is not due to the Lomé Convention, but is the result of a whole number of international agreements. It just cannot be claimed that these products enter the Community markets because of the Convention. The Convention was responsible for maybe only a third of such access: 28 % to 30 % at the most.

What of the 0.5 % to 1 % of products which do not qualify? This small number of products is very important for some countries. So, this is one thing we are seeking.

Turning to another point, you will be well aware that as soon as the ACP states begin to process their products, the Community speaks of safeguard clauses and threats to its own industry, as if the ACP states were so industrialized that they could present a threat to European industry. Even in the case of purely agricultural products, there was beating about the bush recently over, for example, Kenyan and Senegalese strawberries, when the ACP states requested that these products be allowed duty-free entry. They were allowed entry only out of season, when there was no risk of their competing with the European product. So you see, problems arose even in a case like this.

So, in the first place, it is not at all true to say that 99 % of ACP products gain access to the Community market as a result of the Convention, because this is due also to international agreements; secondly, the remaining 0.5 % to 1 % is important for many ACP countries.

If the Convention is to mean something, we would like it to encompass genuinely free access.

Commodities: turn words into deeds

► *This brings us to the subject of commodities, which you said recently in an interview you regarded as the "fer-de-lance" of the ACP states in the forthcoming negotiations. What did you mean by that?*

— Everyone knows that most of



"If, at each meeting, our European partners always react in the same fashion, the ACP states may eventually come to feel that they are being misunderstood or even rejected"

the ACP states are producers of commodities, particularly agricultural and mining products. Recently a member of the European Parliament, Mr Jackson, quoted figures which show the importance of trade between Europe and the developing countries. He noted that 40 % of the Community's exports, valued at US\$ 100 000 million, go to the Third World and that the Third World exports products worth \$80 000 million to the Community. This demonstrates clearly that the ACP states are major suppliers of raw materials to the Community and, in turn, are a very sizable market for the Community's products. In such a situation one must look for a happy medium, a suitable balance in which both parties and their interests are satisfied. This is why, if a genuinely satisfactory solution is not found to the question of commodities, all other questions, whether in regard to trade cooperation or Stabex, will continue to pose problems for both sides.

► *The Community could say that commodities should be discussed in other forums, such as the North-South dialogue or the Common Fund, in short within the United Nations.*

— We do not say that commodities should not be discussed in other forums, but we say that the substan-

tial volume of trade between the two groups offers a sufficiently broad framework to justify an attempt to reach agreement. Don't forget that it has always been said that the Lomé Convention between the ACP states and the Community was a model, perhaps even the precursor of a North-South agreement. Why then not take advantage of the opportunity and ensure that words are transformed into reality? This is what we ask, and I think there is a reasonable possibility of success.

"Arduous and very tough, but friendly" negotiations

► *The forthcoming negotiations look as though they may be more difficult than the previous ones. Are you optimistic about the success of these negotiations?*

— All negotiations are difficult; we have no reason therefore to be complacent during the forthcoming negotiations. What is important and certain is that we, on the ACP side, believe we have a clear and strong case to argue. If we find the other party receptive and the atmosphere conducive to discussion, there is no reason why the negotiations should not work out to the satisfaction of both parties. However, you may be sure that for both sides these negotiations are going to be arduous and very tough, but friendly, of course.

► *Is there not a difference of approach between the ACP states, which believe they have not benefited fully from the Convention hitherto, and what one knows of the Community's intentions for the next Convention?*

— We are not very sure yet what the Community intends. We have received indications, of course, but in any international relationship of this nature and on this scale one must take account of the past. It is certain that, in the case of Lomé II, it has not been just the content of the Convention but primarily its application which has caused problems. If, during the coming negotiations, both sides try to find solutions to these two problems, namely the content of the Convention and its application proper, I think that considerable progress will be made. ◊

Interview by
ROGER DE BACKER

"It would be better to transfer the bulk of European cooperation policy to the Community level"

Ulrich Irmer,
member of the European Parliament

Even at the time of negotiations on Lomé II the European Parliament took a strong interest in cooperation with the Third World, and in particular the ACP states. That interest has grown since the direct election of the Parliament in 1979 and, as the Community prepares for the negotiations on a follow-up convention to Lomé II, the Parliament has been putting forward its ideas on the shape and objectives of ACP-EEC relations. The development committee of the Parliament has produced a report on the subject, drafted by Ulrich Irmer, a German member of the Liberal and Democratic group. In the following interview he puts forward some of the ideas that have emerged from the committee's work.

► *The coming negotiations on a new convention between the ACP and the EEC will be at ministerial level. What role can the European Parliament play?*

— This touches on a basic principle which concerns the role of the European Parliament in the context of the institutions of the EEC. The EEC is mainly an administrative body, or has been in the past, and we in the Parliament are trying to transform it into a democratic body. We want parliamentary control, on behalf of the people, over the administration and the ministers. Let me give a very practical example; the question of ratification of the Lomé Convention. So far the Convention has been ratified on the European side by the parliaments of the member states. This is due to the fact that the European Development Fund (EDF) has not been budgetized yet (1). We in the Parliament have requested for years, as has the Com-

mission, that the EDF should be part of the budget, which would mean that only the EEC as such, as a legal body, would be in charge of matters covered by the Convention. If the next EDF were budgetized, the right of ratifying a new convention would be taken away from member states and there would then be no parliamentary body at all to ratify it. That's why we say the new convention should be ratified by the European Parliament.

► *Is this a proposal which you are actually putting forward to the Council?*

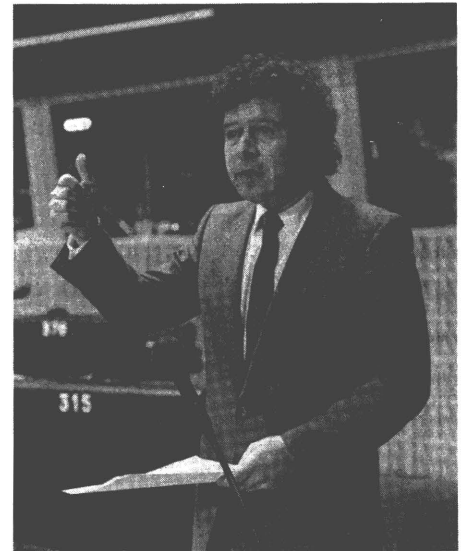
— We are proposing it to the negotiators. Our resolution asks the negotiators to include a paragraph in the new convention that it shall only come into force if the European Parliament ratifies it. And since we claim, as a European Parliament, that we should ratify this convention, it stands to reason that we want to follow the negotiations, and also the contents of the new convention, very closely.

Important role of the Joint Committee

► *Does this attitude influence the way you look at the ACP-EEC institutions?*

— Lomé I and Lomé II had certain institutions. There was a joint Council of Ministers and the meetings of ambassadors on the executive side; and the Joint Committee and the Consultative Assembly on the parliamentary side. Time has proved that the most dynamic institution, the one which has produced new ideas and exerted active control over what was happening within the Convention,

(1) The EDF is made up of direct contributions by the member states and does not form part of the European Community's budget.



Ulrich Irmer

was actually the Joint Committee. I believe, and many of my ACP colleagues confirm this, that in recent years it was actually the Joint Committee of the Consultative Assembly which developed new ideas and investigated problems whenever they arose.

If you want an example, the Stabex system has presently failed because the finance was not sufficient. We could not pay all the justifiable claims from ACP states and so we, in the Joint Committee, in the Consultative Assembly and in the European Parliament, said the system must be changed to avoid a situation where ACP states make a claim and then are told that we are terribly sorry but there is no money. There is a clause in the Convention saying that if there is no money, then the contributions have to be reduced. But politically, this means a failure of the Stabex system, because politically there is an obligation. Legally there may not be, but politically there is an obligation to pay these claims. Now this problem occurred in two years when the European Community actually had a surplus on its budget. We could easily have transferred part of this money to Stabex, if the EDF had been included in the general budget of the EEC. Due to the fact that it wasn't, we could not because there was no legal base to do so. We just had to sit back and watch the Council of Ministers make the best of the situation, which, under the circumstances, I think they did.

A need for greater coherence between development policies

► *Would budgetizing the EDF increase the importance, in your view, of development policy in the overall activities of the Community?*

— The European Parliament has always said that the EEC should cover all the policies which the Community could do better than the member states individually. One of the classic fields for this is cooperation with Third World countries. History has shown that there has been too little coordination between the policies of member states and other donors. Too often you find that a project financed by one country takes no account of another project financed by one of its partners. The European tax-payers see this as a waste of money. If all the efforts and development financing from public funds — I am not referring to private donors — could be coordinated by the EEC, this would be a most important contribution to higher efficiency and greater economy.

The EEC summit in Stuttgart ended recently with an appeal to the EEC by the heads of government to save money. Now this is wonderful, but member states should also look to themselves to save money by transferring competences to the EEC in all those fields where the EEC could handle things better and more economically than member states.

► *Would this get support in the ACP states?*

— I have the impression, from all my talks with political leaders in different countries, especially in Africa but also from the Caribbean and the Pacific, that the political leaders in these countries are more at ease when they cooperate with the EEC than with individual countries. They trust the EEC as a fair partner which does not pursue only its own interests. We are interested in maintaining peace in the world but we are not interested in building up spheres or zones of interest. Nor are we interested in interfering in the political affairs of these countries. We just simply say "don't attach yourself to one of the great political blocks of the world". I say this even at the risk of offending some Americans,

but it is true that when the Americans get involved in development cooperation, they have in mind their own "imperial" interests. I won't even mention the Soviet Union in this context, because there it is so obvious that they follow only their own "imperial" interests, their interests as a world power. That is why I say Africa believes more in the EEC, because it is really making an effort to be a fair partner. We want the ACP states to develop and maintain their political independence and not be subdued by any foreign interests.

► *Is it politically realistic to expect the EEC member states to push more aid via the Community when, for historical reasons, they have been used to administering a large part of their own bilateral development aid?*

— I think it is realistic because the ACP states find that although co-operation with member states, where there is a tradition, is good to maintain, in the long run it will be more efficient and much fairer to put more emphasis on cooperation with the EEC as an institution. I am not advocating that countries that have a tradition in cooperation, such as Great Britain and France, and which have the same language as is spoken in many parts of Africa should not have close cooperation. But I think it would be much better, even in this case, to transfer the bulk of European cooperation policy to the Community level because the fact is that, although these close ties from the



"The ecological aspects have been grossly neglected in the past": bush fire in Botswana

past can be an advantage, they can also very easily be a disadvantage and lead to a degree of dependence for a sovereign ACP state on a former colonial power.

Independence from foreign aid

► *Can we now come to some of the points that you have been discussing in the Parliament's development committee? One of the points that comes up very early on in your report is the question of encouraging self-reliance as the basis of development cooperation. What does that mean in practice?*

— When you talk of self-reliance you should not only think of individual countries. It also implies talking of regions. We don't want to create illusions: self-reliance is a permanent, a constant, process; it is not a thing we can achieve within five years. You cannot transform the Sahel into a blooming garden overnight, for instance. It is impossible. In some countries, looking at the food and agricultural situation, we will simply have to put up with the fact that food aid will be necessary for another 10 years. Maybe even longer. The idea of self-reliance is that cooperation, and all financial aid which we undertake under this Convention, should at least try to make the ACP country or region concerned a bit more independent from foreign aid. I don't personally like the idea of a country just saying it is poor, that it lacks national resources, education, almost everything, and therefore the international community should step in and help. The international community should, of course, but it should involve a mutual effort to achieve self-reliance so that the degree to which a Third World country depends on foreign aid decreases practically day by day. You have to have aid in cases of disasters, but all other foreign aid I would consider useful only if it contributes to the aim of self-reliance. A follow-up convention can only be useful in the end if it succeeds in making these countries more independent from aid.

► *Has the context of Community aid changed?*

— There are new difficulties. The world economic crisis, which was

not foreseen 15 or even 10 years ago, has had a disastrous effect on Third World countries and also on the North. If we look at the financial contribution member states and the EEC can make available, it is, of course, dependent on the economic situation in those countries; the growth rate, the rate of unemployment, and so on. The effects of the world economic crisis have been much more disastrous for Third World countries. World conditions today are much more negative than they were when Lomé II was negotiated.

Self-reliance nowadays is even more valid than it would be in a situation where the industrialized countries had enough resources. We want to get away from the present rather chaotic system of investing money in certain individual projects when there is no account taken of context and no overall plan. In many cases a project is financed and works well as a small entity, just as it had been conceived on paper, but when it is put in the context of the social, cultural and environmental life of the people it involves, it proves to be an extreme failure. Here I approve very much of the idea of Mr Pisani, in his memorandum, of having policy strategies and a policy dialogue, with the EEC and the responsible people in the ACP country agreeing on certain aims which should be followed. If a government says we need an airport badly, please finance it, the first question should be, not whether you need an airport, but what can be done to make the economy as a whole become more independent from foreign aid? What can you do to develop economic ties with neighboring countries; to develop regional cooperation; to increase trade in the region and with the world; to become more independent from one product exports like sugar; to diversify production, and to develop certain small- and medium-sized industries? It is not progress, for example, to set up a steel plant in a Third World country with the steel crisis we have in the world; it would be absolutely foolish. Nobody can sell steel in the world any more at a competitive price.

Producing what will sell

► *It is sometimes said in develop-*

ing country circles that now the industrialized countries are in crisis themselves, they have suddenly become interested in things like food strategies, integrated rural development, regional development and regional trade because these threaten Western industrialized economies less than industrial development. The developing countries also want to get into the industrialized market, but the policies the North is evolving at the moment seem to put them in a corner for protectionist reasons. Do you think that is a valid argument?

— No, I don't think so, because we are asking for a 100 % opening of all markets to ACP products. But this is not the problem; trade is dependent not so much on these restrictions but on the ability of ACP countries to produce goods that are wanted and then to sell them to the EEC. ACP states should try in their policy dialogue with the EEC to define reasonable aims and what it makes sense to produce. The proper thing would be to concentrate on things which can be produced under more competitive circumstances in ACP countries, and the first thing would be to process more of their own raw materials on the spot. This also creates more local jobs. So it is not only a matter of opening the EEC market, which they are certainly asking for, but of helping the ACP to sell their goods at decent prices on the world markets. In this context intra-ACP cooperation in trade should be emphasized much more, and we ask for this in our resolution as well.

► *In your report you used the word "alarm" when discussing the environmental impact of aid; why alarm?*

— Because I think the ecological aspects have been grossly neglected in the past. It is not so much the fault of the ACPs as of the advisers who came out from Europe. The ecological problem was not recognized in Europe itself until 15 years or 20 years ago at the most. We have seen what happens with forests disappearing and pollution of the air and rivers, and we now see that in Africa the same thing is happening. There is deforestation, desertification and so on. In this report we say it is time to pay more attention to this and to understand how natural resources will

be destroyed unless action is taken to stop it. Independent ACP states can learn from the crimes we committed in this respect in our own countries.

More maintenance aid in the future

► *As we go from convention to convention, we have to consider more and more not just new projects or policies, but how we maintain in working order what has already been done. Is your committee also concerned with that?*

— Yes, that is a very important aspect and we emphasize in our report that, in planning any project, the aspect of maintenance must be considered. There must be maintenance in a material sense, but there must also be qualified people who are able to run the project after the EEC consultants have left. This must be done, otherwise it does not make sense to finance anything. There are "investment ruins" all over developing countries, where beautiful projects were financed which just do not work any more because there is nobody who is able to maintain or run them. So we propose the maintaining of existing projects, and in the case of each new project, that this aspect should be included.

► *Finally, do you have a personal view as to the length of the next convention?*

— This is a point of minor importance. The most important thing is to define the contents of the convention. When that has been agreed you can decide on the basis of its contents how long it should be. We could come to an agreement on certain basic points which could be for an unlimited period, and certain technical aspects could be agreed upon for a more limited period of time or with the possibility of each side saying it wants to reconsider. I am convinced that this cooperation is so essential and so necessary for both sides that it will in fact be unlimited, even if in the next convention it says it is for 5 or 10 years. It is because we depend on each other so much that I can see no alternative to this cooperation. ◊

Interview by
IAN PIPER

More participation and dialogue needed in new Convention

Interview with Percival Patterson
Former deputy prime minister of Jamaica

► *Mr Patterson, you were involved in the negotiations of Lomé I and II. After nearly eight years, what is your assessment? Do you think the whole exercise has been worthwhile?*

— We started off the negotiations for Lomé I with a tremendous feeling of expectation and the realization that we were charting a course in a new field of opportunity. By the time we came to renegotiate the first Convention we had already begun to experience some degree of disappointment and disillusionment, partly because our expectations in respect of the first Convention were never fulfilled, and partly because we could not get the Europeans to understand that the second Convention ought to represent a departure in kind from the first one, and was not merely a dotting of 'i's and a crossing of 't's. Having said that, one must nevertheless admit that there have been some benefits, albeit modest.

One should endeavour, as the time comes for negotiating a successor convention, to take account of the dramatic changes which have happened between the 1970s and the 1980s, as one looks at the whole international economic picture. And although it is a fact that the economies in the developed countries have been experiencing problems, they are nowhere as serious in proportion as those which have been felt in the developing world, and those who constitute the ACP group of countries.

I think what is becoming more evident is that the dream, the concept, of interdependence, which strongly influenced the formulation of the Lomé relationship, is perhaps even more urgent, even more critical, even more relevant to the realities of today's economic situation. And one would hope that the negotiators on both sides would grasp the significance of this and that we would have a new convention which reflects the desire to make interdependence real and meaningful.

Industrial growth "has simply not materialized"

► *Are the negative effects of the Lomé I and II Conventions due to defects in the nature of the arrangements or to the sluggishness of the private sector in Europe, when it comes to trade between the ACP and the EEC?*

— I would say it's been a combination of both. One could never see a convention of this kind in a static sense. The experience has to unfold. If we take oil out of the trading fig-



Percival Patterson

ures, we will notice that the exports from ACP countries to the EEC have declined in real terms, while in return the exports from Europe to the ACP countries have increased. This is partly due to the fact that commodity prices have taken a battering over the last eight years. That is primarily what we export and primarily what we depend on for our economic sustenance.

The industrial growth which we had hoped would have taken place in the ACP countries has simply not materialized, partly due to the lack of sufficient investment, the absence of any substantial efforts at joint venturing between European firms and ACP firms, and partly because of a tendency towards increased protec-

tionism in Europe. In those areas where the ACP could offer some cost advantage, the EEC has tended to be very restrictive because of the implications for its own internal employment situation and the fact that industries like textiles are among the sensitive industries in Europe. There has been a tendency to impose quota restrictions, or the threat of quota restrictions, rather than seeking to make them more efficient or recognizing that their inefficiency is perhaps a strong argument for diversification and for enabling the ACP countries to move more into that kind of area.

► *Would you say that the inflexibility of the Convention is in a way responsible for some of the difficulties the ACP states are experiencing?*

— In my own view, the inflexibility of the Convention derives more from the manner in which it has been implemented rather than in the letter of the Convention itself. Lomé involves a partnership, and a partnership, by its nature, involves a process of giving and taking, with the stronger expected to do more of the giving. If it takes more from the weaker it destroys the capacity of the weaker to contribute in a meaningful way to a lasting partnership.

What my own observation has been is that when it comes to implementing the provisions of the agreement there is not sufficient discretion taking place among the partners. It is Europe saying by edict what is its own interpretation of the particular provision of the Convention and asking or insisting that the ACP must accept it, or else... And this has been the case whether in relation to Stabex agreements, with regards to provisions under the EDF, with sugar quotas, or in the determination of what goods qualify under the rules of origin. What I would like very much to see as a characteristic feature of the new convention is a greater level of dialogue, a greater level of meaningful participation.

And perhaps—and this is purely my personal suggestion—the establishment of some sort of permanent trouble-shooting body, consisting of full-time people in the ACP and in the EEC who monitor on a continuing basis, from week to week, from item to item, those areas where problems

occur or where problems seem imminent or likely. The body should be charged with working out proposals, solutions and mechanisms within the letter and the spirit of the Lomé agreement or a successor arrangement, whatever it is called or however it is described. I believe that this would attempt to give greater fluidity in the working of the Convention and a greater appreciation on both sides that we are in a partnership which requires contributions from both sides.

The ACP "raison d'être"

► *What about internal ACP organization and cohesion? Haven't the ACP Secretariat's inadequate resources and management hampered the ACP group in its relationship with the EEC?*

— I don't wish to be drawn into the internal dynamics of ACP politics, but as one of those who was involved in its foundation, and particularly in the evolution of the Georgetown accord, there are two broad observations that I would like to make.

The first one, and this is a view to which I have always tenaciously held, is that if the ACP group is to have a continuing 'raison d'être', it cannot be confined solely to meeting from time to time to negotiate with Europe. It must look at the opportunity which exists within the ACP states themselves for increasing cooperation at the technical, economic and trading levels. To me it has always been a paradox, which we could have converted into something for our own benefit, that Europe, which separated us, has provided us with a channel by bringing us together again in a closer and more homogeneous relationship. It has always been a source of disappointment to me that the possibilities of inter-ACP cooperation have been insufficiently attended to and emphasized. I think out of that failure arises the second consequence to which you refer.

For our institutions to work effectively they must be seen to have some continuing purpose. For the institutions within the ACP to have real meaning and to be effective, they must be required to do more than monitor the Lomé Convention insofar as ACP/EEC relationships are concerned. That would require political will and political direction. It would require giving the ACP Secretariat and the committee of ambassadors

clear, specific mandates and guidelines. That would motivate countries to make available to the ACP Secretariat, even on a short-term basis, the technical skills which are necessary for the discharge of its obligations.

I have always felt that the ACP group does not fully appreciate the unique opportunity it has, as an organ of a group of developing countries, in having available to it a secretariat. The Group of 77 has no such coordinating body. The non-aligned movement has no such permanent structure in place. I believe the ACP could well provide an example to other developing countries of what a secretariat could be expected to achieve. In making those observations I am not commenting on the capacity of individuals within the ACP Secretariat. I am speaking of a concept, of a fonction which I envisage a secretariat should have.

Need for counter-proposals

► *Commissioner Pisani, in his memorandum, has made a number of proposals. Which of these have retained your attention most?*

— First of all, I was struck by the determination of commissioner Pisani to create something bold and something new. It certainly suggests that we will not have the same approach to the successor convention as we did to Lomé II, when compared with Lomé I, that is to say; he is envisaging the creation of something which is new and dynamic. This does not mean that all his proposals provide the necessary solutions, nor does it mean that there are not other worthwhile ideas which ought to be canvassed. But I think his attempt to concentrate on particular areas of development is specially welcome. This is particularly so in a world where there are so many international organizations competing in the same sphere, and very often duplicating each other's work while leaving other significant areas insufficiently attended to.

I believe that the emphasis which he has placed on agriculture, the capacity of countries to feed themselves, rural development, is well conceived. If the new arrangement with Europe could make any progress in this area it would substantially improve the living standards of all our people and it would make a material contribution to our advancement.

I think also the suggestion that the contributions to EDF funding should be part of the entire budget of the Commission does have a great deal to recommend it. I think it would make the flows and the budgeting far more predictable. I think it will also ensure that if in future countries accede to the Treaty of Rome then they automatically have to contribute to EDF funding, which was not the case when Greece joined. My own view is that the ACP countries have heard what is the approach of Mr Pisani, representing the Commission. It is now time for them to make their own study and determine for themselves what is their own approach. In other words, we should not merely confine ourselves to reacting to Commission proposals, we should have proposals of our own to put on the negotiating table and seek to get what is best in both proposals.

► *What would you like to see in the next convention for the Caribbean?*

— Most of what I have said about the structural weaknesses in the Convention and in our economies applies as much to the Caribbean as it does to the countries of Africa and the Pacific. In the Caribbean, the Lomé Convention has not made the impact which one would have hoped. Certainly in terms of trade, there is very little we can show for it. There have been projects implemented in several of the member states which are of some value, but they certainly have done very little to improve the quality of our life, or to widen what is a precarious economic base.

In specific terms, I feel that the next convention should try to assist the process of regional economic integration. And that means not merely the provision of access opportunities, but the creation of the basic infrastructure on which economic growth and integration must be based. The fact of a physical separation by vast expanses of sea, has proven to be a major impediment in the field of transport, and communication, and in being able to pool our rather limited raw material resources for the process of meaningful economic development. I believe that that is an area where the Convention could help, both in terms of the provision of much-needed capital as well as improving the levels of technology which now exist. ◊

Interview by AUGUSTINE OYOWE

A wasted opportunity?

by François-Jacques VAN HOEK (*)

Many journalists and commentators have depicted the proceedings and outcome of the Belgrade Conference as, at best, a camouflaged failure—clearly, like any blanket judgment, this is an over-simplification.

A simplification firstly because the conference ran its full course and did not—as it threatened to do on a number of occasions—break up; and secondly, because it concluded with a series of specific resolutions. Some of these represented real progress in the North-South dialogue and in the implementation of specific joint action programmes: recognition of the fact of interdependence and its implications; a new impulse given to the setting up of the Common Fund and to the realization of the Integrated programme; monetary and financial problems. Others gave a clear confirmation of previous commitments (public aid, combating protectionism, action programme for the least developed countries, etc.). This confirmation was absolutely necessary, as many Third World representatives suspected—rightly or wrongly—that the industrialized countries wanted to back down on these commitments due to their present economic and social difficulties.

Nevertheless it is true that even in order to achieve this much, UNCTAD VI had to survive many tensions and overcome many difficulties.

Different and more difficult

These difficulties were due to UNCTAD VI's being, firstly, different from the five previous such conferences held over the last 20 years and, secondly, more difficult than these.

It was different because the Group of 77 had been preparing for it, at a series of regional and inter-regional meetings, since the beginning of 1983, preparations which had led to publication of two documents: the Buenos Aires Declaration, which was political in character and called for dialogue between the various groups towards the achievement of a con-

sensus, and the Buenos Aires Platform, which consisted of a whole range of draft resolutions. Thus the situation at previous conferences was reversed: it was up to the industrialized countries to put forward counter-proposals. They had, it is true, been preparing their own proposals at both European Community and OECD level; the terms of these, however, though quite generous, were sometimes—it must be owned—rather vague, as witness the final communiqué of the Williamsburg Summit. And so they found themselves, just as the conference opened on 6 June, with the additional task on hand of formulating specific responses, in the form of resolutions or amendments, to the proposals of the 77.

Whereas the first stage of our preparations—vague as they were—met with approval from the 77, the second they found disappointing. This for two reasons.

Firstly, because it was laborious and therefore slow: it was practically 21 June before all Group B's important texts had been passed on to the Group of 77 for examination and discussion. Two factors were to blame, one being the system employed by this kind of conference of negotiating in groups—I will return to this subject—the other being the fact—this must be accepted, I think—that the Community, itself undergoing change and faced with a number of serious internal problems, was unable, within Group B, to show the same powers of persuasion and impulsion as at previous UNCTADs. It played a very important role at the preparatory stage (almost all Group B's final text were based on Community original texts); a considerably less important one, however, when it came to mediation and impulsion (when the Community had to defend its original texts in the face of calls from other members of the Group for amendments of a very restrictive nature).

Disappointment

The 77 were furthermore disappointed by the content of our counter-proposals. For the reasons just mentioned (effect of the system of negotiating in groups, attenuation of the Community's role even within its own group), there was—as the 77 were not slow to point out on receiving the texts—a certain disparity between Group B's concrete counter-proposals and the political messages, of a more general nature, received by the 77 both before the conference and during the general declarations opening it.

It was also a more difficult conference—this because it was held at the turning-point between a period of crisis and its sequel, and because there are very marked and fundamental differences dividing the 77 from some Group B countries as regards causes of the crisis and recovery prospects. This latter question of "recovery and development" was in fact chosen as the conference's leit-motif, uniting its general and specific discussions.

Here some of the industrialized countries thought priority should go to the constraints to be exercised, on the one hand by the industrialized countries to create the conditions necessary for non-inflationary recovery and to initiate renewed growth, on the other by the developing countries order to profit from the upturn in international economic activity; whereas the developing countries and some Group B countries—and they found their point of view in this shared by the president of the World Bank—held that lasting economic recovery in the developed world also depended in part on an increase, the short term, in demand from developing countries, whence an indisputable need—though its dimensions had yet to be fixed—for an injection of extra cash into the international monetary system.

Similarly, the former school of opinion thought that both international monetary and trading systems had proven their flexibility and adaptability (leaving aside occasional indications to the contrary like the Williamsburg communiqué); the latter thought these systems, devised 35

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years ago, would require much more radical adaptation in order to take account of the greater interdependence and polarization of today's world.

With both "camps" thus entrenched in their positions, it is not surprising that discussion on these important agenda items often resembled a dialogue of the deaf. This also explains why—in spite of considerable efforts by the chairman of the conference, foreign minister of the host country, Mr Mojsov, and although both sides recognized the fact of interdependence and its implications—the end of the conference saw the adoption of no "Belgrade Declaration" on "recovery and development".

Difficulties of the system of negotiating in groups

More than the previous conferences and precisely because so much was at stake in both general terms and individual areas (deciding on the aims and conditions of a series of joint action or parallel programmes in order to overcome the crisis together), UNCTAD VI showed up the difficulties caused by the system of negotiating in groups.

It is becoming increasingly evident that this system is more of a hindrance than a help. Though intended when devised to consolidate the solidarity of developing countries, experience shows that, in a rapidly changing world, this system is becoming an obstacle to real dialogue rather than an instrument promoting and facilitating it (unless we regard as dialogue the succession of official speeches opening the conference at the first plenary session, or the technical scrutinizing of texts by committees, working groups and drafting groups). The system further means that each group—with the perfectly valid aim of preserving its unity—tries to satisfy everyone within it before communicating its proposals to the others. For example, the Buenos Aires Platform included draft resolutions in the interests of newly industrialized countries, of countries which export raw materials, countries beset with the repayment of foreign debts and, finally, of the least developed countries (who are hardly members of the international trading system at all, frequently depend for

their income on a single basic material and are too poor to be in debt to either public or private international banking systems). The precarious balance achieved at Buenos Aires and considered by many a help towards the success of the Belgrade conference in fact made discussion at UNCTAD VI more difficult, the least concession on any point seeming to threaten the perilous equilibrium of what was put together in Buenos Aires. It would appear to have been the least developed countries—and therefore the African subgroup—who suffered most as a result.

Group B, too, was hit by the system's disadvantages: again there are great variations between the interests of and political courses being pursued by such countries as the United States, Canada, Japan, the Nordic countries, Australia, the EEC countries, Austria, Switzerland, Spain, Portugal, etc. The only group seeming to have no problems with the system was Group D, countries with planned economies...

It is a question which the Commission and Community mean to study in the weeks and months ahead, so that the lessons of Belgrade are learnt and the procedural improvements needed are researched and applied. One idea worthy of immediate study is the possibility of better systematizing the consultations between sub-groups. The EEC was involved in two such meetings in Belgrade, with Asean and the ACP. Both were very constructive. They were, however, the only meetings of this type and took place on the 29 and 30 June, just before the conference closed and when more or less everything had been decided. There should be far more of these consultations, both before and during the conference; with Asean and the ACP but also with other groups of countries (Maghreb, Mashreq, Andean Pact), and not only with groups but also with individual countries to which the Community is linked by special cooperation agreements (India, Brazil, Yugoslavia, etc.).

Some progress... and some missed opportunities

What is, finally, to be our verdict on these six months of intensive pre-

parations by both sides, these five weeks of difficult negotiations?

There were, as I have mentioned, a number of positive results both in individual areas and, especially, overall. Tensions there were, but despite these both industrialized and Third World countries clearly indicated their desire not to cut their links but to maintain dialogue, both on specific matters and in a more general sense; and in this general sense, the progress made towards recognition by all participants of the fact of interdependence, and of the implications of this, was without doubt one of the conference's very positive achievements.

The fact remains, however, given the critical period in which it was held, that UNCTAD VI was in some ways a failure, a meeting where a number of opportunities went to waste.

But we must not lose heart. Where an undertaking corresponds to a vital need, the difficulties threatening it can and must be overcome. Such has been the experience of the Commission and the Ten time and time again.

Some progress has been made: this must be consolidated, particularly within UNCTAD (commodities), but also within the other international bodies involved.

Opportunities have been missed: dialogue must be resumed and developed, both where it was broken off due to lack of time and in the forums where the conference's deliberations are due to be continued (UNCTAD, GATT, IMF, IBRD).

Difficulties have been met with, some arising from the Community's own working procedures, its means of expression and powers of persuasion, others from the procedures governing discussion and negotiation within UNCTAD. It is now up to the Commission and, more generally, the Community to look into the deeper reasons for these difficulties, so as to establish what alterations and adjustments are necessary if future opportunities are to be exploited to the full.

Only in this way can we rescue UNCTAD VI from having been a wasted opportunity. ○ F.-J. V.H.

TANZANIA

"Tanzania can recover from its present economic troubles if Tanzanians become self-reliant" — (Julius Nyerere)

In October last year President Nyerere made a major speech to the national conference of the ruling party, the Chama Cha Mapinduzi (CCM), to review the state of the nation 15 years after the Arusha declaration which launched Tanzania on the path of socialism and self-reliance. His report, in his own words, was "not a pleasing one". With a frankness and directness typical of Tanzanian politics in general, he catalogued the serious economic problems the country faces, problems which could jeopardise the significant progress that has been made in education, health and social provision since the Arusha declaration. The President's message to the party was simple. Although Tanzania had been affected by events totally beyond its control—the four main ones are discussed below—the country could not use them as excuses for not making a greater effort itself to achieve the political and economic goal of self-reliance. Heavily dependent on foreign aid, and in discussions with the IMF and the World Bank on a number of unpleasant decisions which might have to be taken, the next few years will be difficult for Tanzania, even if the world recession begins to ease.

Tanzania came into being in April 1964 through a union between the former British protectorate of Zanzibar, whose independence in December 1963 had been followed by a bloody revolution which had overthrown the sultanate, and the mainland territory of Tanganyika, which from 1919 to 1961 was under British mandate and trusteeship. The President of the new state was Julius Nyerere, who had led the nationalist movement in Tanganyika, and one of the posts of vice-president went to the Zanzibari leader Abeid Karume. Since the union, Zanzibari politicians, now led by vice-president Aboud Jumbe, have maintained a separate identity for the island and it was not until 1977 that the two parties in this one-party state (the Tanganyika African National Union, on the mainland, and the Afro-Shirazi Party of Zanzibar) merged into the Chama Cha Mapinduzi, with Nyerere as chairman and Jumbe as vice-chairman.

Britain had taken over the mandate in Tanganyika after the First World War. From 1885 to 1916 it had been a German territory and traces of the German presence, in language, dress and archi-

ture, still remain. The wide use of Swahili today owes much to an early German initiative.



An almost timeless scene from the East African coast which, for hundreds of years, has been a melting-pot of cultures and peoples

Although the mandate meant that Britain governed three territories on the East African mainland, Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda, the evolution of the three was not to be uniform. Tanganyika, the poorest, became independent first, partly because the trusteeship demanded that the territory should become independent and partly because the nationalist movement was effective. There was not in Tanganyika the same problem of the settlers which was to hold up Kenyan independence, although all three territories were to face difficulties with the Asian community in the years which followed as the demands for Africanization grew. At independence the Asian community was playing a major role in commerce.

A high profile in Africa

Tanzania has become well known in international affairs because of the foreign policy it has followed since independence. President Nyerere has been an active exponent of non-alignment and a new international economic order; but it is probably on southern Africa that his views have become most widely known. Nyerere and Kaunda led the campaign to free the continent from minority rule and gave what support they could to the armed resistance to that rule. Pressure for change eventually brought independence for Angola, Mozambique and Zimbabwe, which have now joined the front-line states in putting pressure on Namibia and South Africa. At home Nyerere has tried to make Tanzania an example of non-racialism in a continent where its evil legacy has still to be eliminated.

Socialism at home

From the beginnings of his political career Julius Nyerere has been a socialist. At independence he put his thoughts down in a pamphlet, *Ujamaa, the basis of African socialism*, which basically described traditional African ideas of the community. It was not until 1967, when he made the Arusha declaration, followed by a series of pamphlets, that his ideas took further shape. From then on Tanzania sought to create an egalitarian and self-reliant society.

A single party system had already

Tanzania information services

been adopted, although elections, with members of the party competing against each other, maintained an element of choice. Despite the fact that the country was poor, the government pursued policies of wealth redistribution and ministers and officials were expected to set examples by taking modest salaries and avoiding such obvious signs of privilege as large cars and houses. A major effort went into providing the rural community with primary health care, education and clean water.

The structure of the state, however, has presented a problem. Co-operatives, which were encouraged in the agricultural sector in order to encourage maximum participation by the public, were abandoned and their role passed to the parastatal crop authorities. Now, although the parastatals are being maintained as buying agencies at a national and regional level, co-operatives are being encouraged again at the lower level. The peasant, who grows most of the crops in Tanzania, is still very much his own man, but elsewhere in the economy an official presence is widely felt. The state is perhaps trying to do more than the limited financial and human resources available will allow, and the balance between state enterprise and private local and foreign enterprise still does not seem to have been settled.

Four economic setbacks

Tanzania has been seriously affected by the world economic recession, which has depressed demand and prices for its exports and pushed up the cost of its imports, especially oil. There are hopes of developing commercial oil and gas reserves off the East African coast, but the extent and viability of these still have to be confirmed. President Nyerere gave examples of what had happened as a result of the oil crisis in his speech last October. In 1972 Tanzania's oil imports cost T Shs 269 million. By 1977 this has risen to T Shs 835 million, and by 1981, despite a 30 % reduction in the amount of oil imported, the cost had risen to T Shs 2 053 million. Almost everything else the country imported rose in price too. The example he gave, a seven ton truck, rose from T Shs 66 500 in 1977 to almost double that last year.

Although export prices for some goods in the past five years improved



A former locomotive of the East African Railways, one of the common services of the East African Community. The collapse of the EAC left Tanzania with the problem of building up its own separate air, rail and telecommunications services at a time when it could ill afford to do so

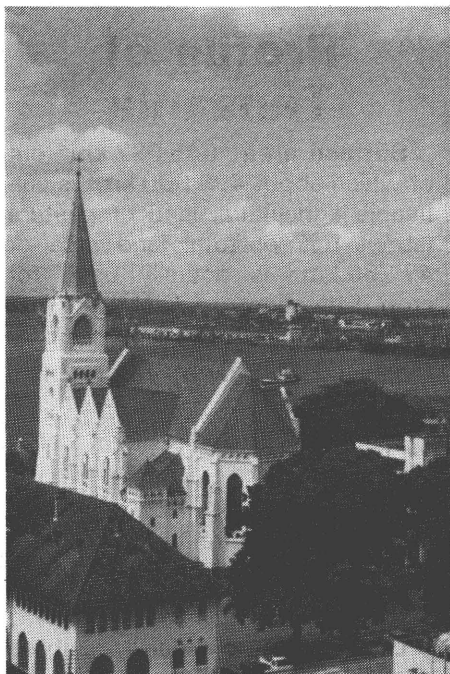


A maize store in Dodoma, Tanzania's new capital. Drought, inadequate funds for agriculture, organizational problems and the world recession have all combined to make Tanzania depend on food aid in years of poor harvests

slightly (cotton and sisal are examples), prices for others dropped. The drop was 40 % for Tanzanian coffee, 29 % for tea and 12 % for tobacco. "To buy a seven ton truck in 1981", the President said, "we had to produce and sell abroad about four times as much cotton, or three times as much cashew, three times as much coffee or 10 times as much tobacco as we had to produce and sell in 1976/77". The deterioration in Tanzania's trade position has produced acute shortages of essential imported spare parts and inputs in all sectors of the economy. As a result, industrial and agricultural production is stagnant or falling and transport infrastructure often in a state of disrepair.

The collapse of the East African Community

The second blow to Tanzania, over which it again had little control, was the break-up of the East African Community, which had provided many important common services. Tanzania found itself trying to replace these services out of its own pocket. Nine planes had to be bought, maintenance workshops for the railways had to be built and infrastructure provided for an independent postal and telecommunications system. Apart from the heavy cost, which the country could ill afford, the break-up of the community was very disruptive.



Dar es Salaam harbour

The outbreak of war

The third external factor which affected Tanzania was the war in Uganda. Relations between the two countries were bad throughout the period of Idi Amin's rule in Uganda, and the border tension which followed Amin's attempt to annex the Kagera area of Tanzania in late 1978 eventually led to war and a Tanzanian invasion of Uganda. The toppling of the Amin regime certainly boosted Tanzania's self-confidence, but the cost in lives was heavy — 684 soldiers were killed and 467 seriously wounded. Tanzanian troops had to stay in Uganda until some degree of order was restored. President Nyerere estimated the direct financial cost of the war to Tanzania at well over T Shs 4 000 million.

Drought and floods

Finally, the fourth factor — the weather. Tanzania has had a succession of bad harvests because of drought, which has affected many parts of the country, and floods, which have destroyed crops and disrupted communications by undermining bridges and roads. Assistance from abroad has helped to ease the shortages—the National Milling Corporation distributed twice as much food aid as local production in the 1980-81 season—but over the period 1977 to 1982 the government itself spent over T Shs 640 million on importing food.



Tanzania information services

An adult literacy class in Tabora region. Tanzania has directed much of its effort since independence to eliminating poverty, ignorance and disease

Internal factors

Tanzania's economy is fragile and vulnerable and it could not be expected to stand up to such a combination of external factors. The difficulties were increased by other factors, some of



Tanzania information services

Tea has been one of Tanzania's more successful export crops in the last decade, with production falling less than for many other major cash crops

them, ironically, from successes achieved by the government. Life expectancy is rising and this has stimulated population growth. There are more mouths to feed and more demands on education and health facilities. Past improvements in transport infrastructure, and the setting up of industries, increased the demand for fuel, imported raw materials and spare parts. But there were other internal factors which President Nyerere pinpoints which are not the result of success, and the most important is attitude. He used his October speech to call again for greater efficiency and an effort at all levels of the economy to improve output. "The Tanzanian policy *kila mtu fanye kazi* (everybody must work) has to become a reality in this country... Tanzania can recover from its present economic troubles if Tanzanians become self-reliant. Tanzanians are only self-reliant if they do an honest day's work... Just now almost every country in the world is confronted with the same problem as we are: how to improve and strengthen its economy in order to get into a position where it can begin a new advance. The countries which succeed will be those with good policies and good plans, and who refuse to be shaken out of those good policies and programmes but instead determine to implement them whatever the difficulties. And most of all, the successful countries will be those which recognize that their main weapon is self-reliance". o IAN PIPER

Julius Nyerere

Born in March 1922 at Butiama, a small village near Lake Victoria, he was named after a rain spirit because it was raining. At eight he entered Musoma middle school and at twelve entered Tabora government school. From 1943-45 he was at Makerere University College where he received a diploma in education. As a star debater, he introduced international affairs into the discussions. He was then given a teaching position at St Mary's Catholic Mission School, Tabora, where he taught history and biology to the top forms for three years. In 1949 he was Tanganyika's first student to enrol in a British University and received a BA at Edinburgh. He was the first Tanzanian to be awarded an MA (1952). The



foundations of his political philosophy were laid while at Edinburgh.

He returned to Tanzania and became history master at St Francis College, Pugu, near Dar es Salaam. He married Maria Gabriel on 24 January, 1953. In May 1954 he was appointed a temporary member of the Legislative Council. When the Tanganyika African National Union was formed on 7 July, 1954, he was made its first president.

During 1955 he took TANU demands to the UN. In 1956, he lec-

tured in colleges and secured scholarships for Tanzanians during a visit to the USA. On 20 December 1956, he addressed the fourth committee at the UN. After his UN speech, Governor Twining placed a ban on his open-air meetings because of the inflammatory statements he was making. So Nyerere went to the villagers in Tanzania and talked to the elders for four months. *Sauti ya Tanu* (Voice of TANU) was printed irregularly. In February 1957 he made a third visit to the UN. He was also nominated a member of Legislative Council in 1957, but he resigned later in protest at lack of progress. Nyerere was made chairman of Tanganyika's Elected Members Organization. In 1959 he visited the USA and Canada. He advocated the establishment of an East African Federation and was prepared to postpone Tanganyika's independence if it could be formed.

When Tanganyika achieved self-government in October 1960, he became Chief Minister. In May 1961 full self-government was attained. Soon after Independence (9 December 1961) he resigned as Prime Minister and was out of power from January to December 1962 building up the Party, leaving the government administration to Rashidi Kawawa. In December 1962 Tanganyika became a republic with Julius Nyerere as its first president. On 14 January, 1963, he announced a one-party system of government. It came into effect in 1965. He was re-elected president in 1965, 1970, 1975 and 1980.

In 1967 he issued the *Arusha Declaration*. He has been the main philosopher and policy maker of TANU and the Chama Cha Mapinduzi explaining through discussions or speeches and taking part in the self-help schemes and self-reliance activities in ujamaa villages. He is called *Mwalimu* (teacher) by the citizens. He has written many articles and books and his speeches are compiled into several books. Nyerere has been granted awards by numerous universities in the English-speaking world and remains one of Africa's leading nationalists.

Profile of Tanzania

Surface area: 945 087 km² out of which about 498 000 km² is cultivable agricultural land or pasture (about 5% of total land area or 47 250 km² is actually used for crop cultivation).

Population: 19.1 million (1982); (population growth rate 2.8% p.a.).

Head of state: President Julius Nyerere

Political system: Elective one-party legislature (republic).

Political party: Chama Cha Mapinduzi (revolutionary party).

Languages: Kiswahili, English plus a number of local languages.

Literacy: about 48%.

Currency: Tanzanian Shilling (TSh). TSh 12.2 = 1 US\$ (20% devaluation on 6 June 1983).

GNP: (Mainland only): US\$4.749 million, or US\$249 per capita (1982) at official exchange rates (at market exchange rates, these figures would be much lower). Sectoral breakdown: agriculture 49%, industry 9%, trade and finance 12%, public administration 11%, others 19%.

External trade: (1982)

Exports (f.o.b) — \$421 million (coffee 30%, cotton 12%, cloves 10%, sisal 9%, tea 4%, tobacco 4%, cashew nuts 4%, diamonds 6%, others 21%).

Imports: (c.i.f) — \$924 million

Main trading partners (1981): Exports — EEC 43%, India 6%, Indonesia 6%, Hong Kong 6%.

Imports — EEC 41%, Japan 11%, USA 6%.

Balance of payments:

Total Current account deficit (1982): \$487 million.

Net capital inflow (1982): \$360 million (mainly aid).

External debt (end 1982): Estimated \$2100 m.

Debt service: at least 20% of export earnings.

Debt service \$50 m = 9% of exports (see article on economy).

Economic performance: GDP per capita in real terms has fallen in

The Tanzanian economy

At independence in 1961, Tanzania (then Tanganyika) was one of the poorest countries in the world. Almost solely dependent on subsistence agriculture and a few estate crops, the country had a very modest industrial base (less than 5 % of GDP) and a very small number of educated and trained personnel. For the first six years after independence the government's development strategy resembled that of many other less developed countries. However, this was all changed by the Arusha declaration of 1967, in which the country adopted a socialist development strategy, emphasising village-based rural development, government ownership of the means of production, and equality of income and access to public services amongst its people. This strategy was to be based on the principle of self-reliance in national and local development efforts; this principle may be roughly interpreted as emphasising the use of domestic resources to meet the basic needs of the people.

To implement this strategy, the party (Chama Cha Mapinduzi or CCM) and the government were allotted a central role, especially in the reform and creation of appropriate institutions. This led in the late 1960s to the nationalization of large sections of the industrial sector, banking and insurance, and the creation of numerous parastatal bodies, followed up in the early 1970s by the decentralization of government (1972), the dissolution of cooperatives and their replacement by crop parastatals, and the mass campaign of villagisation (1974-1976).

Social advance

Despite some disruption arising from these major institutional changes, Tanzania managed to show improvements both in social welfare and in macro-economic performance in the period 1967-1974. Primary school enrolment increased by more than 50 %, life expectancy rose by almost five years and access to safe water increased in both the rural and urban areas. Rapid progress was also made in localizing key posts in the economy, although large gaps in

manpower requirements remained. GDP grew by 4.4 % per annum from 1966 to 1973, and although there was a deficit on the current account in most years during this period, this was covered by borrowings from overseas.

However, output of the productive sectors grew slowly, despite the high level of investment, and weaknesses in the underlying structure of the economy were already becoming evident. A series of adverse external events—including a severe drought in 1974/76, the collapse of the East African Community in early 1977, the war in Uganda from 1978 to 1979, and poor rains in 1980 and 1981—together with adverse movements in the terms of trade and the international economic recession have put severe strains on the economy since 1973, which have led to the current serious crisis.

The major source of structural weakness has been the disappointing performance of the agricultural sector, which accounts for approximately 90 % of total employment, 50 % of GDP and 80 % of exports. The long-term trend in growth of agricultural production has not kept pace with population growth, and in recent years export crop production has declined and official purchases of food crops have also fallen. Taken together with a decline in the terms of trade, the purchasing power of Tanzania's exports in 1982 was estimated to be almost 50 % lower than in 1977 and only about 40 % of the 1966 level. Part of this shortfall has been offset by additional external resources, including a sharp increase in aid from around \$ 100 million in 1971 to \$450 million in 1981. The volume of imports in 1982 is, however, substantially lower than in the early 1970s, although there is a much greater infrastructure and industrial base to be serviced. Inevitably this has led to the deterioration and under-utilisation of the capital stock, as well as to falls in output and productivity.

Recent economic developments

During 1982, the pace of econ-



Coffee picking on Mount Kilimanjaro. Coffee has been Tanzania's most important foreign exchange earner and an EEC-backed coffee improvement scheme aims to overcome production problems

omic decline accelerated, with the vicious circle of "falling production → falling exports → falling import capacity → falling production" taking a further downward twist. With population growth continuing at approximately 2.8 % per annum, 1982 GNP per capita in real terms is officially estimated to be at about the same level as in 1971.

Marketed production from the agricultural sector, the heart of the economy, suffered a general decline, with purchases from farmers by the official marketing agencies for the main food crops and most export crops falling to their lowest levels since 1976. The decline in the relatively small industrial sector has been even sharper.

1982 merchandise export earnings in US \$ terms were about 29 % down on 1981, and the lowest since 1975. Although merchandise imports were cut back by 18 % in US \$ terms, the trade account showed a deficit of over US \$ 500 million, roughly similar to the outcome in each year since 1978.

Total external assistance provided, excluding commercial loans and credits, has ranged from \$ 300-450 million per annum since 1978, and has covered from 45-80 % of the trade account deficit. In 1982, total external assistance provided was approximately \$ 380 million, covering 72 % of the trade account deficit. Part of the remaining deficit was covered by an increase in commercial borrow-

ings and suppliers' credit. However, the increase was much smaller than in 1980-81, reflecting the drying up of these sources of funds.

Payment arrears rose by some \$100 million during the year to about \$450 million at 1 May 1983. Arrears include debt service payments outstanding on the \$2 100 m external debt, which is now in the process of being rescheduled.

Since 1981, the government has launched two annual economic survival programmes and its three-year Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP), which runs from July 1982 to June 1985. These programmes have all aimed to reduce public expenditure and the rate of inflation (around 29% in 1982/83), to increase exports and to boost output of the productive sectors, especially agriculture.

Talks with the IMF have been going on for years, but there are understood to be major differences of opinion regarding the extent of the devaluation and other adjustments needed. An IMF team is expected to arrive in Tanzania this month (September) for negotiations.

Economic outlook

The 1983/84 Annual Plan forecasts a 12% increase in merchandise exports, but because of an expected fall in loans and suppliers' credits, total foreign exchange availability will actually be less than in 1982. Imports are forecast to fall by about 15% in US \$ terms to approximately \$760 million, which will result in a further reduction in the availability of imported goods.

In 1982, imports of oil and oil products cost around US \$230 million. Already in 1983 there have been serious shortages of diesel fuel throughout the country, which have necessitated the temporary closure of several factories and aid projects.

An increase of 30% in development budget expenditure is proposed in 1983/84, compared with actual expenditure in 1982/83. Agriculture and livestock receive 24% of the development budget (cf. 13% in 1982/83). Total public expenditure is expected to rise by 12% and central government borrowing by 21%.

Agriculture in crisis

"We have treated agriculture as if it was something peripheral, or just another activity in the country, to be treated on a par with all the others... We must now stop this neglect of agriculture. We must now give it the central place in all our development planning. For agriculture is indeed the foundation of all our progress".

(President Julius Nyerere, October 1982)

President Nyerere's observation, made in a speech to the conference of the ruling party (the Chama Cha Mapinduzi) in October last year, was a recognition of the fact that after 20 years of independence, Tanzania, a primarily agriculture country, has paid insufficient attention to the sector on which all else depends. Tanzania's agriculture is in deep trouble. With few exceptions, production of both cash crops and food crops is stagnant, if not actually falling. This has meant a rising balance of trade deficit, falling foreign exchange earnings and a recourse to food aid.

Agriculture in Tanzania directly or indirectly involves 90% of the population, accounts for 50% of GDP and 75% of foreign exchange earnings, and is the biggest single employer of labour in the country.

The production figures speak for themselves. The failure in the cash crop sector has meant a lack of foreign exchange to buy essential inputs for agriculture itself and for other vital sectors such as transport and industry, where capacity is heavily under-used.

In common with many developing countries which have been affected by external factors beyond their control, Tanzania has found it easier to analyse problems and set objectives than find ways and means of achieving improvements. Last October President Nyerere outlined the problems of the cash crop sector and made an important observation as to the reasons behind them. "Except for coffee and tea (where production remained about the same), the production of all major export crops has gone down over the last five years. For cotton, sisal, cashew nuts and pyrethrum, this reduction was a continuation of a trend which goes back to the 1960s. Clove production has

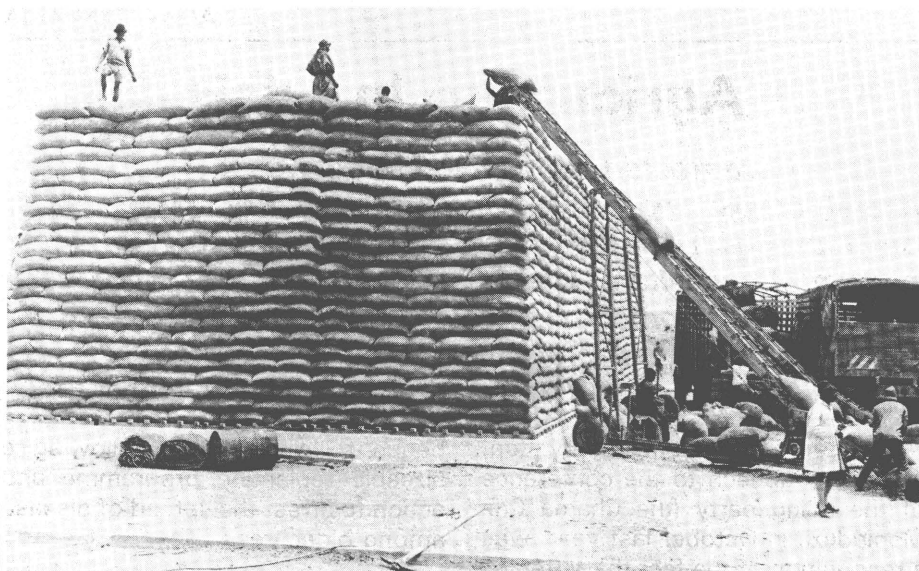
begun to climb again, following a sizeable replanting programme and action to arrest the spread of disease among older trees.

"Look at some figures. Cotton lint purchases by the authority (1) have gone down from 67 100 tons in 1976/7 to 45 000 tons last year. Sisal production has decreased from 133 000 tons to 73 000 tons. Cashew production has dropped from 97 000 tons to 42 300 tons. These figures cannot be attributed solely to drought, and although special explanations can be given for the decline of each particular crop the evidence suggests that some more general explanation has to be sought for the decline over so many crops".

(1) For each of the major export crops there is a parastatal authority which buys, transports and processes the produce.



President Nyerere lays the foundation stone of a dispensary in an ujamaa village in the Kondoa area of central Tanzania



A stockpile of maize, Tanzania's most important food crop, in the Iringa region (left) and women spraying young maize plants with insecticide (right). A lack of inputs, such as insecticide, has been partly responsible for the lack of agricultural productivity

The President's "general explanation" was that the government had effectively neglected agriculture and failed to give it the priority it deserved. But it may well be that even what has been done for agriculture has been unhelpful.

To discuss the problems of the sector the *Courier* turned to one of Tanzania's leading agricultural experts, Professor Mbilinyi, who is now principal secretary in the Ministry of Agriculture. It was put to him that over the past two decades there had been too much tampering with institutional structure and this had caused uncertainty among producers and inefficiency among administrators. He agreed in part.

"We have proposed too many changes in terms of institutions. We had centralization; later we said we would decentralize, so that peasants could take part in decisions. While we were doing that we also abolished the cooperative movement and increased the responsibilities of crop authorities by giving them the work that was supposed to be done by cooperatives. In the last 15 years there have been many institutional changes, so many that we have not really stabilized the structure of the rural sector, either in terms of organizing production or in terms of the back-up institutions."

Professor Mbilinyi now wants to put emphasis on three areas: "Research, which means developing

packages that can be used by the farmer. We have to rehabilitate and strengthen the research institutions so they can respond to farmers' needs. Second, extension. The government has taken the decision to centralize again. Extension has been divided between the Ministry of Agriculture proper, the regional administrations and the agricultural parastatals. Coordination by the ministry was not easy, particularly in specific areas of specialization. Now, all the extension staff will come back under the same institutions as before.

"The third area of institutional change will be in the structure of the crop authorities. The crop authorities were given extended responsibilities after the abolition of the cooperative societies. Instead of being purely marketing institutions, they were supposed to collect all crops from the peasants. So their duties stretched from the national level all the way down to the peasant. The government has now made a decision to restructure by returning marketing and production to the cooperative movement, and the crop authorities will revert, for the most part, to marketing boards dealing at the inter-regional, national and international levels.

"Finally the other thing which needs to be strengthened is the delivery of inputs. We may have the farms, the land, the extension staff and all, but if the inputs don't come

in time, there is no way you can really improve the agricultural productivity of the peasant. The peasant is the key man in Tanzanian agriculture at the moment, and he needs inputs—tools, fertilizers, agro-chemicals and seeds. Our duty will be to get these delivered on time, in the right quantities and to the right specifications."

Foreign exchange problem

Agriculture in Tanzania suffers from a chronic lack of foreign exchange, as do all other sectors of the economy. But unlike other sectors of the economy, it is agriculture which is expected to provide the bulk of foreign exchange. But it is unable to increase production without more inputs, and when it comes to world prices Tanzania depends on an international market over which it has hardly any influence. The foreign exchange problem is a vicious circle which has worsened as exports have faltered; demands on foreign exchange have grown because of an expansion in education and health services, and the need to import spare parts for plant and equipment, installed during the last 20 years. For Professor Mbilinyi the only hope is "a strategy to increase agricultural production and increase possibilities of other sectors of the economy to earn foreign exchange, especially natural resources, forestry, fisheries and tourism. But there is also the

Ministry of Minerals, which is a very young ministry—it was created about three years ago. If they can develop a programme and expend the capacity to export more than we can in agriculture, natural resources, and minerals can become pillars for our foreign exchange earnings, and we shall not need to depend only on agriculture for the development of the economy”.

Tanzania has successfully pursued certain social objectives in such fields as water supply, health and education. But has too much gone to the social side and deprived agriculture of the resources it needed?

“For us it was imperative to improve the lot of the peasants who are the largest section of the population,” said Professor Mbilinyi. “We have expanded the peasants’ life expectancy. They are now getting clean water and can rid themselves of small but frequent diseases. By responding to basic needs, you create a more productive man. It’s not only the social aspect of this expenditure that counts, there is also an economic effect. I don’t think we have spent too much on the social aspects, on basic needs. Maybe we have spent more in relation to what was being spent before, but that was negligible”.

The parallel economy

Earlier this year the Tanzanian government cracked down on what it described as economic saboteurs. The problems of distributing food and other goods have led to the

growth of black markets and what is often called the “parallel market”.

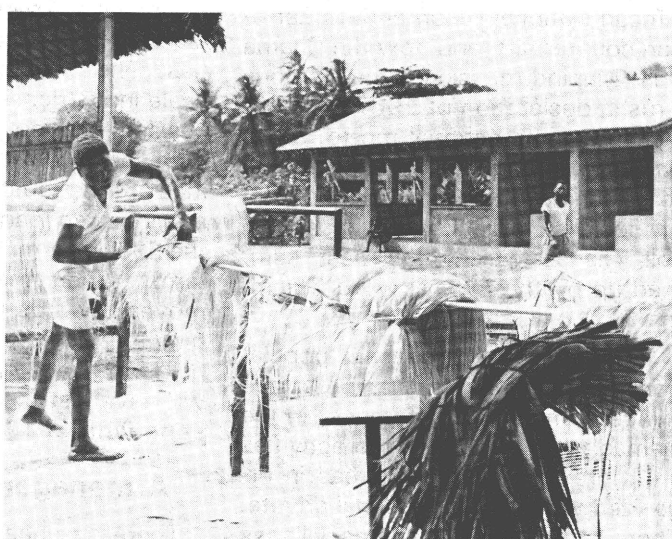
In Tanzania most food crops not consumed locally are officially purchased, processed and distributed by the National Milling Corporation. However, a parallel private market exists, especially in deficit years, and part of the food crop is marketed in the urban areas and deficit regions by illegal traders. Official purchases of maize, the main food crop in Tanzania, have varied greatly over the past 15 years, in a bad year (1974/5) reaching only 24 000 tons and in a good one (1978/9) 220 000 tons. The level of activities by private traders is determined by the level of producer and consumer prices. Producer prices for maize have, in general, kept abreast of inflation, but real prices for most other food and cash crops have fallen. This is probably the main reason for the poor levels of production for most cash crops in recent years, although the problems faced by the crop authorities, who are supposed to buy, collect and market the various cash crops, has added to producer disincentives. There are also two important factors outside the control of the government—adverse world market conditions and drought. The average decline in production during the 1970s for the seven major export crops (coffee, cotton, sisal, tea, cashews, tobacco and pyrethrum) had been estimated at 17%.

Professor Mbilinyi emphasises that the marketing structure in Tanzania reflects the peasant or subsistence

nature of most agriculture. “The bulk of trade in Tanzania, and indeed in sub-Saharan Africa, does not go into the organized market as we know it, but is in either the open market or the traditional market. That means food is moved in small quantities between families, between villages, between tribes, between towns and settlements. That represents the bulk of the trade in food, and has not been abolished by government. It is still there. For me this is not a parallel market. Between the organized market and the traditional market, or the open market, there is only one other possibility, the black market. Racketeers. They exist for one reason: there is not enough production. If there was enough production, they wouldn’t exist. The functioning of the National Milling Corporation and the traditional open market combined would not allow anybody to come between them if there was enough to go around. I don’t say the NMC is the most efficient institution in the world, but I believe they could feed the mainly deficit areas, and especially the cities, if they could get all the supply they wanted”.

The price gap

The government has a problem with its domestic pricing system. For many years the consumer price for maize has been subsidized. The urban dweller does not pay a price which covers both the cost of production by the farmer and the cost of transport and distribution, met by the National Milling Corporation. The



A sisal field in Kilosa Morogoro (left) and sun drying the crop (right). Despite the steady decline in production over the last decade, Tanzania is still the world’s second largest sisal producer with about 20% of world output

difference between the farm gate price and the shop price is artificially low as a result of increasing government subsidies. The problem now is how to reverse this trend and relieve the government of the growing burden. A simple increase to a realistic level would be too sudden.

"We have to consider the social relationship between the farmer and the consumer, and strike a balance" says Professor Mbilinyi. "If you consider only the farmer and you forget the consumer, you may have social problems and a consumer revolt. If you give too little to the producer he may become apathetic and not produce at all. Price covers economic, political and social aspects. We must beware of spoiling the consumer by giving him highly subsidized food. But the only subsidized food we have now is maize flour; the rest of it is almost at cost. Sorghum, rice, wheat, they are all at cost, even beans. There is only maize flour that is heavily subsidized. We are trying to phase out the subsidies and increase the farmer prices at the same time. We hope we will eventually phase out the subsidy, maybe in four years and at any rate in less than five".

The ujamaa village: communal self-reliance

Tanzania is known abroad for its ujamaa villages. The word ujamaa means cooperative or communal, and is used in Tanzania to mean the type of socialism that has been developed under President Nyerere and the party (formerly the Tanganyika African National Union and its Zanzibari counterpart, and now the Chama Cha Mapinduzi) since the famous Arusha declaration of 1967. The objectives of the national motto, *uhuru na umoja* (freedom and unity), were to be achieved through a unique form of socialist organization based on self-reliance which was best summed up by the Swahili word "ujamaa".

"The bulk of the peasant population is in the 'ujamaa' or organized villages. There is a difference; in the ujamaa village, most of the activities are more communal, whereas in organized villages, they are still private. There are very few ujamaa villages but there are quite a number of organized villages, over 8 000 of them,

where 200 or 300 families may live. International observers often say they are socialized villages. They are not, they are still very much in private hands. Look at their anatomy. There is the homestead, which is about an acre, or in some places a half acre, depending on the availability of the land. The homestead contains the house and the surrounding farm, which I call a sort of "refrigerator" because it is there that the family has its own crops planted: pumpkins, maize, beans, carrots and so on, which are mainly for home use. This is the subsistence patch, where we try to maintain the idea that they have their own basic needs fulfilled.

"And then there is a second plot, outside the family household, which we call the block farm. Here there are common services for land-clearing, ploughing, harrowing and planting. It is easier to do this on a block farm of a thousand or two thousand acres which is then subdivided into smaller lots of four acres or three acres, depending on the size of the family. This share of the block farm is an extension of the homestead village.

"The third part of this structure is called the communal farm, which is owned by the village, but it is mainly there to grow a surplus, which can be sold to generate income to run the services of the village: the schools, their water supply, the dispensary and their development programme. The homestead and the block farm, these two, are the main producers of the crops and they are still private. Apart from the agricultural side there are also other activities. The villages may have small-scale industries, carpentry, food processing and so on. They run their own shops. But the agricultural activities are the most important and they are in three parts: the homestead, the block farm and the communal farm. When the organized village moves towards ujamaa, it will combine the block farm and the communal farm into a state farm. Then you will have just the homestead and the state farm".

A management problem

There has been some criticism of the efficiency of this system and Professor Mbilinyi agreed that there had

been problems. "It is quite efficient in some regions. But the main problem is leadership and management. When you have farms of this size you need a manager. Most of our people in the villages can cope with their homestead and their two or three acres. But when you come to 500 or 1 000 acres, then they need assistance with management through the extension service. Unfortunately the extension service has no proper facilities".

Large-scale farming

Although most farming is done by peasants, there are large-scale state farms run by parastatals and private commercial interests. These too have faced organizational problems and suffered from a lack of foreign exchange to purchase equipment. The government wants to encourage joint ventures and private enterprise to raise production, and a recent agreement with Lonrho, which was nationalized in the 1970s, can be seen as part of a process of encouraging joint management of large-scale farming. Private enterprise will, however, have to provide its own capital for any new ventures; but private farms will in future be treated on the same basis as state farms as far as allocating foreign exchange is concerned. The government's policy is to allocate foreign exchange to "export oriented institutions so as to enable them to import the essential inputs without which their export performance would be seriously hampered". As the major earner of foreign exchange, agriculture can expect to get its fair share. Its problem will be that it will get a slice of a cake that is too small.

A long haul

The objectives of raising productivity and production by improved organization, inputs, extension facilities, transport and marketing will not be achieved overnight. As the latest white paper on agriculture reminds Tanzanians. "There is no miraculous method of achieving these objectives, especially as Tanzania starts from the base of an agricultural economy dominated by traditional husbandry methods and desperately short of expertise and of resources for investment". o I.P.

“The North cannot be secure if we are not secure”

**Amir Jamal, Minister without Portfolio
in the President's office**

Amir Jamal has been in every Tanzanian government since internal self-government was achieved in 1959. He is now the longest serving minister in the government and, as a leading theorist of Tanzania's socialism (ujamaa), a close colleague of President Nyerere. Ndu-gu Jamal has held a wide range of ministerial posts covering commerce, industry, communications, transport, planning and economic affairs. But he is best known for his work as minister of finance, a post he has held four times. In February this year he became minister without portfolio in the President's office with two principle responsibilities; the implementation of Tanzania's structural adjustment programme (SAP), which aims to end the country's economic stagnation, and international economic affairs, in particular the attempts to set up a new international economic order (NIEO).

Amir Jamal is already well known in international circles as one of the two African members of the Brandt Commission which produced its celebrated and much discussed report *North-South: A Programme for Survival* in 1979. Early this year a second report, *Common Crisis*, was published, lamenting the lack of progress since the first report and suggesting ways the deadlock might be broken. In the following interview Amir Jamal begins with the problems of the North-South relationship — or South-North as he prefers to call it — and then gives his personal views of some of the difficulties faced by Tanzania as it tries to get out of the grip of economic recession.

► *The second Brandt report has just been published, three years after the previous one. Why do you think so little progress was made between the two reports?*

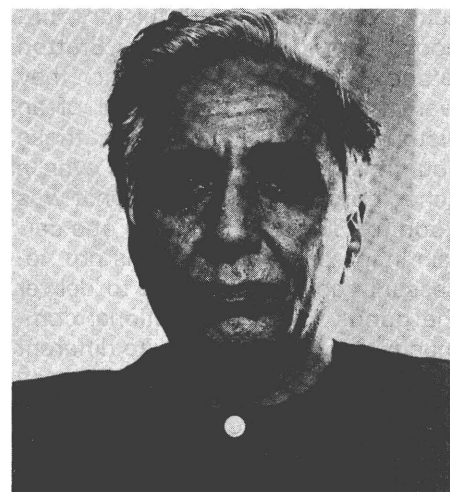
— Those of us who took upon ourselves the somewhat presumptuous task of addressing the subject of the new international economic order, and presenting the international community with our opinions on some of the issues involved, knew from the beginning that we had no political power ourselves. We only had the power of persuasion. As the chairman put it, quoting another leader, “words are weapons”, and we thought we should try and use them, instead of other types of weapons that are being used all the time in this world. Although it is true that on some of the items that we considered to be of an emergency nature, and on others of a more long-term nature, executive action has not been taken, nevertheless I think there is evidence that more con-

sciousness of the issues has come about as a result of the Brandt report. It was not a waste of time. If it had been, I don't think we would have dared to produce our second memorandum, *Common Crisis*, as we did. We have stimulated a debate and the attempt now is to open up the subject again, in the words of *Common Crisis*.

“Cancun should not be seen as fruitless”

► *The Cancun summit was one outcome of the earlier report. Are such events likely to occur again and are they much use?*

— We were disappointed with Cancun because we thought it would be a turning-point and lead to some kind of executive action on the part of governments. Cancun disappointed a lot of people, because as soon as you have summits of this kind, particularly a unique meeting of leaders like that, expectations are al-



Amir Jamal

ways very high. This was a danger we were aware of from the beginning. With each state conscious of its own sovereignties, you have tremendous limitations to start with. But disappointing as Cancun was, it should not be seen as fruitless or to mean that you cannot undertake further efforts of that nature, because once you have a framework you should use it. This is true of the United Nations General Assembly, where all the sovereign states meet together, and which is the product of the lesson of the First and Second World Wars. The limitations are also there, even though the present secretary-general, who is a very thinking person, has really been putting the cat amongst the pigeons and trying to get the nations to use this instrument more effectively. An interaction has now taken place organically in this world as a result of the efforts made outside the UN, though with its blessing, through such meetings as Cancun. I think the process of seeking mechanisms is now upon us. My government would be of the view that we must put more work into these kinds of meetings in order to get a commitment to positive action.

► *One of the main suggestions in Common Crisis, as in the previous report, was that there should be a significant increase in finance for development. But taking into account the atmosphere that existed in Cancun, do you really think that's realistic?*

— What I think is needed first of all is a strong political will to agree

that certain aims are important, and then the political will to achieve results. Nobody can undo history, nobody can dismantle the Bretton Woods institutions overnight; they were themselves the product of an historical necessity felt by those countries at that time. Now even a schoolboy can tell you that what was good for 30 or 40 countries at a certain stage of development is not necessarily going to be able to deliver the goods for an international community which is now a quite different collection of countries, with many diverse problems. In this world we live in, there is a process which creates liquidity for certain purposes by certain groups of countries, which have the power. At the time when the Vietnam war was being financed by one particular country, it was an expression of sovereignty of that country, although it was executing that sovereignty in a manner which affected the rest of the international community. And this is going on and on in various ways, for purposes important for either one country or a group of countries. They give each other swap arrangements and so on and so forth. If you had the best professional brains of the world and put them to the task of using this liquidity for development, as well as for balancing trade and allocating it properly, it could be done. The human mind is capable of doing many things, has done many things and will do many things, it is just a question of directing it. If you direct yourself to producing micro-chips, you produce micro-chips, and if you direct yourself to the task of regulating international liquidity to bring equilibrium in the world, a dynamic equilibrium, not a static one, which covers both trade and development, then it can be done.

A "serious international effort" needed on trade

► *What specific changes would you like to see in world trade structures which would benefit a country like Tanzania?*

— Different countries have different problems. For those which are primary commodity countries like us, certainly a just relationship would mean getting a return for your toil, for your sweat, as reasonable as if you were producing something else.

This is not happening at the moment. International institutions will have to address themselves to a number of elements in the production patterns and realities of countries like Tanzania. They include variables of an immense variety such as weather conditions, the intrusion of insects, the price of finished products and exchange rates. These are some of the variables, some of a developing nature, others of a purely financial and managerial nature, and they have to be understood. You can't get answers by merely expressing a wish, you must allocate tasks. Today there are bodies like the Pentagon, and other places without a name, which are given tasks to perform and they turn their great facilities towards and then begin to deliver. We don't have that kind of thing in the international context at all. It exists only at the national level so far, so we must now develop it. There is no use asking these national institutions to change themselves. The input in these institutions comes from national policy makers who have national interests. You won't get any change there, because the structure is already there and you can't change it. It comes back to a serious international effort, but we won't get it without the will of those who are in a position of influence.

► *The trouble is that serious international efforts have always stumbled on organizational problems. You are talking about a system which is extremely cumbersome and difficult to run effectively. Can you see a way out of that institutional problem?*

— Well, I accept that we are living in a complex world and that we can-

not get an answer to problems in one go. No, it is bound to be a continuous effort in different places, in different ways and with different timetables. You had two wars before you produced Bretton Woods. Do we need another war, a catastrophe of some kind so that out of chaos you can produce some kind of order again? Is that what human beings want, or can we get something through rational thinking now? This is really the question we are all facing today. It may be that things will have to get much worse in the world, so unmanageable as to really touch the very core of stability in the so-called stable countries of the world today. And then everyone will run around and say, "let's do something about it". I think that we are not all that far from it myself.

"Two sides of the same coin"

► *Are you still as keen as you were on a global approach? You have just come back from China where you have been discussing South-South issues. Do you think there will be a tendency in the South now to go towards regional solutions, or a "South only" solution?*

— Again, efforts of various kinds will continue to be made. We exchanged views with many scholars who came from many parts of the world, including this time our hosts in China. We came to a consensus that North-South (or, as we insisted on saying, South-North) and South-South are two sides of the same coin. There is one coin only in this world, the world itself. Change is inevitable, it only has to be moulded



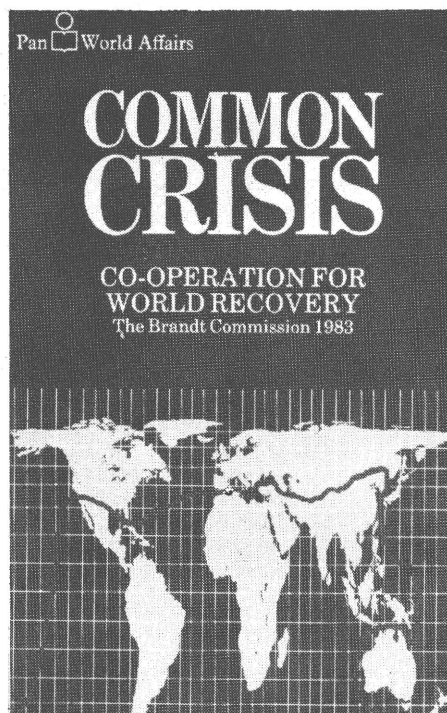
Drying coffee on the slopes of mount Kilimanjaro; but international market conditions are beyond Tanzania's control

and directed towards the ends which will help everybody concerned, not just one side. What we are saying is that South-South cooperation can produce a motivation for that change, which is needed for the sake of the South, and for the global balance of the world. We also know that there are individuals, institutions and governments in the North which believe that change of a certain kind, intended to give more strength to the disfranchised South, is important to themselves. The North is not a monolithic thing, and therefore it should be our task to work with them to isolate the truly short-sighted, the truly reactionary elements, both in the North and in the South. The North-South and South-South relationship should isolate those enemies and produce a global compact, and establish rules of the game, or ethics, which we all accept. This is necessary particularly when we deal with the trans-nationals.

Private investment in development

► *In many of these forums of discussion it's organizations and governments who are talking. Do you think there is a possibility of getting private investors more involved in development in a way which will be acceptable both to the investor and to the host country?*

— I come from a background, an environment, of a capitalist system of which my family and I were a part. Some of us tried to do as efficiently what we call an honest day's work and get results out of it. I think there are enlightened investors in this world who look beyond immediate problems and take a longer view. To build capital, you do it either through creating basically social and national capital, or you do it through harnessing what is called the motivation of individuals, and groups of capitalists, and get them to play a role. When one looks as an outsider at the North, and at the governments, whether they call themselves conservatives, liberals or socialists, they do in various degrees come across this question of how to manage capitalist activities in the interest of their own societies. The role of private investment in a developing country has to be seen first of all from the point of view of the general nature of those



The second Brandt report laments the lack of progress since its "programme for survival" was published in 1980

investments. It is not a very easy question to deal with, because when a private investor comes, for example, to invest in Tanzania, he will want police protection, reasonable security, telephones, water supply, electricity and all the rest of it. These are capital investments too, which have to come from somewhere, but from where? Nobody seems to ask that question in that way.

These things are taken for granted in an industrialized country. When a Frenchman wants to invest in Britain, or a Japanese wants to invest the United States, or the other way around, fine, there is a reciprocity of some kind and an incremental return on capital already invested. But for us it is a basic decision to allocate resources. Where do they go first in order to satisfy and meet the minimum conditions? I think a very large number of capitalists in developing countries were bound to be disillusioned in the past 10-15 years. It was written on the wall. Yes they have a role to play, provided they understand us and a net capital formation takes place within the country in order to take care of those services, and there is balance between the two sides. Unfortunately this question will not be raised because the capitalists will say "that is not my job, I only have to build my fac-

tory, that's what I can understand. Don't ask me about anything else, the police, the defence of the country, and the social turmoil, that is your business." This is not the path to take. That is why the international community must use development financing massively in order to create the kind of circumstances and environment that the private capitalists want, and with whom you can then deal on the basis of justice and see what projects and enterprises are possible and how you share the proceeds. It is not easy.

► *What about the private sector within the country itself? In Tanzania you have limited human and material resources and nevertheless the government is trying to do many things, some would say too many, and therefore doing them badly.*

— I think there is a pleasing understanding on the part of both governments and the international community as to the process that took place in Tanzania. We started with one engineer at the time of independence, and standard 12 education reached only a small number, 1000 only. We did not have a university in a country of nearly 1 000 000 km². Inevitably, the process of change was highly centralized. Then there was the question of the balance between the urban community and the rural community. We were basically peasants at the time of independence; we still are, fractionally less now than then. How do you ensure that you will not have structures which will continue to polarise differences at certain levels and in certain sectors and areas? Without state intervention, you can't do that. You have to have intervention of various kinds.

Whether that intervention should take place through direct management and ownership of enterprises or whether it should be done through laws and regulations is a good question. It is a question which we are debating now. We believe in building a social ethic, especially through cooperatives which will give greater stability and satisfaction than allowing just a few individuals to have access to opportunities simply because they are brilliant. But this must be decentralized because the peasants represent the largest number in this country.

I think that we have accepted that we should move quickly and not put reliance on national crop authorities which are too large and inefficient. We went through a phase where, because the whole national apparatus was so limited, we were almost forced into centralization. Now we must selectively decentralize, and diffuse power. But I want to enter one word of caution: the international economic environment does not push us that way. It pushes even the so-called liberal economics of the world to become more centralized. When you are pressed, as in time of war, suddenly certain human liberties are suspended for the sake of preserving the larger interest. In a sense most of the European countries are in this type of crisis, it might even be called a war. We in Tanzania were ready to decentralize in 1977, when President Nyerere published his '10 years after Arusha' declaration. But we never got a chance; the East African Community collapsed and pushed us into nationalism again. Idi Amin came and brought war, which pushed us into further nationalist thinking.

The oil shock was having the same effect on us, and then came the second oil shock. But the fundamental philosophical thinking of 1977 is still the same. We must decentralize because we agree that too much state operation is inefficient.

► *Has it in some sense worked against the very idea of self-reliance, which has been so central to the whole philosophy in Tanzania? Self-reliance has to start from the grass roots, and yet while the individual is supposed to be self-reliant, the system says it is going to do everything for him. Doesn't it somewhat dissuade him from being self-reliant?*

— You know, the price of not being able to time things properly is always high. Somebody could have said in 1961 when we became independent, if you've got such poor apparatus, what business have you to want independence? The answer to that is if we have not demanded it, 20 years hence we would have been facing the same situation. We had to start somewhere. Self-reliance was never intended to be a question of being self-sufficient. It was a question of using the opportunity to de-



Cotton sorting. Tanzania could process more of its raw materials if it could find the investment and markets

velop the economy optimally while also making sure that the benefits were going to many and not to a few. There also has to be a marriage between the interests of the individual and the interests of society. These are eternal questions all of us are facing, it is part of the dynamics of our situation and the historical forces that are operating. Neither you nor I have mentioned so far the most important historical force that is still operating, that is the awful poisonous wind from southern Africa. It can dismantle all the efforts that we make, simply because it is ruthless in its attempts to destabilize the rest. I think it a compliment that so many people have looked at Tanzania and seen a very stable country, capable of managing and looking after itself. But the international community has to realize the consequences of what's happening in the south and its effect on countries like Tanzania. Those of us who want to build an ethic of a certain kind internally cannot do so without also struggling against what is happening in the south of the continent to which we belong. Self-reliance lives in a hostile international environment. There is no alternative to self-reliance. It is a question of the whole process of developing your own capacity and getting your distribution fair so that there is motivation to work.

The intense pressure in the world today, the recession, has in fact driven this point home. Maybe we should not have been so engaged in

the international economy as to feel the consequences now so badly. Easier said than done. I remember asking a Chinese friend in 1970 what was the ratio of external trade to GNP. He said 3.5 %. That year Tanzania's foreign trade represented 45 % of GNP. Today, now that China has opened up to the world, it is 6 %, and may go up to 9 or 10 %. But ours has gone up to 60 %. That is the level of our dependence. Self-reliance has to function within this environment. In my speech to the World Bank I said that I had carefully noted in the 10 preceding years the various prices of sisal as it moved adversely against us. If it had been indexed to move with manufacturing costs and shipping costs, etc., we would have given back to the international community 700 million shillings and all the aid we needed would have been taken care of. You can talk about motivations and incentives for an individual but you also need them for society as a whole, for the governments.

I am not defending failures and stupid mistakes on our part, or even wrong judgement; we have had all that. But I insist that the international environment has been and continues to be the major factor. We are part of the structure and cannot get out of it. The United States committed itself at the end of the Second World War to massive injections of capital to Europe, and in the wake of the Second World War built up the Bretton Woods institutions to safeguard the values of trade and exchange, as

they understood it. With this massive injection of capital in Europe the process of transnationalizing the world economy was set into motion, and it could never be reversed again. We have no way of getting out. With eight countries on our borders, Tanzania has to recognize the realities of a historical past and a continuing present.

► *Every country in the world, large or small, has learned a lot about its strengths and weaknesses in the last 19 years. Could you briefly summarize what you think Tanzania has learned about its strengths and weaknesses?*

— We had very few options for a period of time because we had to continue with former structures, the education system, for example. Self-reliance had to be built out of the colonial system. It takes time. We know more now about ourselves. We didn't have to talk about our strengths even in a relative sense. We didn't know when Amin invaded that men could actually walk a thousand miles barefoot and throw him out, but this is what we did. That was the strength of the country.

We have had many ups and downs like all countries and societies. I am hoping that the present pressure on us will make us less weak eventually. Some strength will come from the fact that you have to depend on yourself and not rely too much on others. Rectifying our mistakes and weaknesses will take time and it depends on many factors which are not really under our control. So time is important, but what time scale are you going to judge us by? This is the most unfair part of this world, that others judge by yardsticks which they will never apply to themselves. We are trying with the help of others but there is a big gap between the need and the help available. I believe that the North cannot be secure if we are not secure. Your security is bound to our security, and the sooner that message gets across to everyone, every home, every worker, every peasant, every social scientist, the better. You are locked with us and we are locked with you, we are interlocked. We are not yet interdependent, that is an illusion. We are interlocked. ○

Interview by I.P.

Building a national language

Tanzania is one of the few African countries where a local language has become truly national. From pre-colonial times Swahili, originally the language of the coastal peoples of East Africa, has developed both geographically and in terms of vocabulary. If modernity in languages is defined by the expansion of vocabulary and idiom through the absorption of foreign words, then Swahili is the most modern indigenous language in Africa south of the Sahara.

Swahili—or more properly Kiswahili—is one of the bantu group of languages spoken in Africa south of a line drawn roughly from southern Cameroon through central Uganda. Bantu languages divide nouns into classes rather than genders and are notable for the use of prefixes rather than suffixes to change the meaning of root words. To give a few brief examples, the root "tu" is changed by the addition of prefixes to mean "man" (mtu) or "men" (watu), and "thing" (kitu) or "things" (vitu). The prefix "u" expresses abstract ideas. Added to "moja" (one), for example, it becomes "unity" (umoja). Relative pronouns and many tense

changes are also expressed by prefixes.

The Swahili coast has been in contact, through trade, with outside cultures for many hundreds of years. There are numerous Arabic and Persian (Shirazi) words, but also influences from other parts of the Indian Ocean such as India. Colonial rule in East Africa brought Portuguese, French, German and, of course, English into contact with Swahili. However, by the time that Europeans arrived on the coast in important numbers, Swahili had already become the main trading language of the region. Arab traders and slavers, who penetrated deep into the interior, depended heavily on retainers from the coast. Swahili political institutions had also developed, most particularly the Kilwa sheikhdom in the 300 years before the Portuguese arrived in 1498, the Mombasa sheikhdom, and subsequently the sultanate of Zanzibar which remained independent until 1890. Missions, too, contributed to the use and spread of the language and European contact also led to Swahili being written in the Roman instead of Arabic script. Zanzibari Swahili (Kiunguja) has probably become the most well-known of the various dialects of the language, which is now spoken by some 50 million people throughout eastern Africa.

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UCHUNGUZI WA KISWAHILI

(Journal of the Institute of Kiswahili Research)

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The colonial impact

The 19th century colonial powers, and particularly the Germans in Tanganyika, decided to use the language in the administration of their newly acquired colonies. German officials had to learn Swahili and schools, too, used the language.

British rule in Tanzania began after the First World War and the use of Swahili, already well established by the Germans, was continued. In the late 1920s an inter-territorial language committee was set up to standardize Swahili usage in the three British territories in East Africa—Kenya, Tanganyika and Uganda. This committee eventually became the Institute of Kiswahili Research (IKR) when Tanzania became independent

in 1962, and part of the University of Dar es Salaam in 1970.

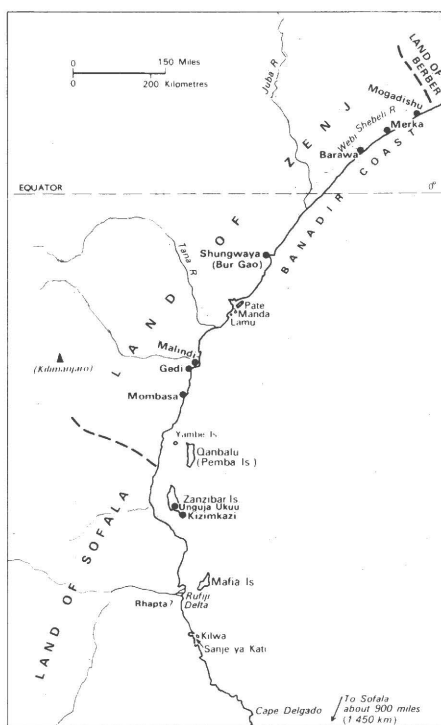
Slow progress

By the time of independence Swahili was most extensively used in Tanzania, but even there it had not developed sufficiently to be used as the sole language of government and education. Today all primary education is in Swahili, but only part of secondary. There is a lack of Swahili textbooks for more advanced studies and the language is still evolving a vocabulary suited to the modern scientific and highly technical world. The government has tentatively set 1993 as the date when secondary and university education should be in Swahili, but this may well prove too optimistic. The lack of funds does not help and there is a limit to the speed at which a language can change. It will be some time before government gazettes, for example, can appear in Swahili. At a more popular level, however, the Swahili press and radio are well established, although they too face a severe lack of resources.

The role of the Swahili institute

Despite its lack of funds, the Institute of Swahili Research is active in four areas; research into linguistics, research into Swahili literature, compiling dictionaries, and translating works from other languages into Swahili. The institute also publishes a journal to make its work known. Compiling dictionaries is a very long process. A new concise dictionary, containing about 25 000 words, is the first product of this work. It attempts to standardize vocabulary which can vary greatly from area to area because of the influence of other languages, French in Zaire, for example, and other bantu languages in Rwanda, Burundi and Uganda. The institute has now started on an English-Swahili/Swahili-English dictionary to replace the existing two volume edition which is now over 40 years old. In the longer term the institute hopes to produce a French and Swahili dictionary, and Swahili-local language dictionaries such as Swahili-Kichagga.

The institute is also involved in actually coining new words in Swahili, either by making composites of ex-



The Swahili coast before the arrival of the Portuguese in the second half of the 16th century. (Reproduced from "Zamani: A survey of East African history" edited by B.A. Ogot, by kind permission of the East African Publishing House and Longman Group Ltd)

isting Swahili words or by taking roots from other bantu languages or from English.

One section of the institute is also involved in translating books into Swahili and the transcription of old manuscripts from Arabic to Roman script.

A long literary tradition

Swahili poetry goes back many centuries and the institute is involved



Traditional dancing at a school in Mtwara, southern Tanzania. Teaching is in Swahili at primary level, but it will be many years before it replaces English at secondary and university level

in collecting both oral and written forms in order to preserve a national Swahili culture. The government sees this as a necessary parallel to the attempt to create a politically unified and economically self-reliant Tanzania. Cultural roots, it believes, bring social cohesion.

Swahili oral tradition dates back to the 13th century, and probably beyond, but early written poetry dates from the 17th century (1663). An epic poem on the Muslim-Christian wars to the north appeared in 1728 (Utenzi wa Tambuka) and subsequent works also had religious themes. But with Muyaka bin Haji (1776-1832) poetry turned to politics. Writing in Mombasa, his poems describe the struggle taking place between the Swahili and the Arabs along the East African coast. Political poetry continued to thrive and was used to criticise German and British colonization during the present century. It still plays a political role today. The most important writer in this later period was Shaaban Robert (1909-1962), who switched to prose and novel writing. By the 1940s Swahili literature had become part of the nationalist struggle.

Play writing did not begin until the 1950s, and today there are a number of playwrights, novelists and poets working in Swahili. The last 50 years have also seen a number of plays and novels translated into Swahili, including President Nyerere's translation of Shakespeare's *Julius Caesar*.

A bilingual future?

Although English was the colonial language, most Tanzanians recognize that it has now become an international language of prime importance, not least within Africa itself. Although present policy it to replace English by Swahili at all levels of government and education by the end of the century, English will remain a parallel language. English has, in a sense, taken root in Tanzania alongside Swahili. A form of bilingualism, to which present policies appear to be leading, is, of course, costly. Yet it seems that Tanzania is prepared to pay the price in order both to satisfy the demands of internal nationalism and to preserve the internationalist traditions of the present administration. ○ I.P.

EEC relations with Tanzania(*)

Before 1969 there was no special relationship between Tanzania and the six member states of the EEC, although there was a substantial flow of trade between them. On average during the 1960s, 15 % of Tanzania's exports went to the EEC and 25 % of its imports came from the EEC — of course, the UK, which was Tanzania's largest trading partner, was not at that time a member of the EEC.

In 1969, however, the Arusha Convention, a trade cooperation agreement, was signed between the EEC and the East African Community (EAC). This agreement was a limited one, with no aid involved. It gave the EAC countries some special trading rights, including a formal quota for certain exports such as coffee.

The first major development in Tanzania's relations with the EEC came two years after the UK had joined the EEC. The Lomé Convention of 1975 heralded a new style of relationship between the EEC and Tanzania, involving both trade cooperation and financial and technical cooperation. Of course, some EEC member states, such as the UK, Germany, the Netherlands and Denmark, had been giving bilateral aid to Tanzania before 1975. However, being a signatory to the Lomé Convention, Tanzania secured additional benefits from the Community, including a financial and technical cooperation programme providing ECU 103 million over five years (1), as well as access to the resources of the European Investment Bank, improved trade arrangements and the opportunity to utilize the Stabex system.

EEC assistance to Tanzania

The EEC established its delegation in Tanzania in late 1975 following the signing of the Lomé Convention, and began implementation of the policy agreed in the Convention. The activities financed, or to be financed, are illustrated in the tables and are summarized as follows:

(*) From the EEC Commission delegation in Dar es Salaam

The Lomé I and Lomé II Conventions

Trade cooperation

Tanzania has duty-free access to the EEC market for virtually all its export products. In 1981 the EEC was Tanzania's largest trading partner, buying about 45 % of its exports and supplying 42 % of its imports. Within the EEC member states, the UK and Germany are the most important partners.

Under the sugar protocol, Tanzania exports 10 000 tons of sugar each year to the EEC at favourable prices. In 1982/83, the price Tanzania will receive for its sugar will be ECU 420 per ton (or £250 per ton) compared to the current world price of approximately £120 per ton. This represents a grant of over ECU 2 million.

As well as having an open market for Tanzanian products, the EEC provides direct support for the promotion of Tanzania's exports by giving assistance for Tanzania's participation at trade fairs — on average seven trade fairs each year.

Stabex

Of Tanzania's most important commodity exports, five are covered by the Stabex system. These are coffee, cotton, sisal, tea and cashewnuts. Under Lomé I, Tanzania received a total of ECU 20.7 million to compensate for falls in earnings from cotton and sisal exports to the EEC. In the first two years of Lomé II, a further ECU 6.8 million was received in respect of falling coffee exports (see table 6).

The Lomé I national indicative programme of financial and technical cooperation

Following an EEC programming mission in 1975, the EEC and the Tanzanian government agreed on an outline programme of projects for ECU 103.4 million. The main projects in this programme, as shown in

table 1, are the coffee improvement programme, the vehicle repair project and the Morogoro canvas mill project. All these projects have now reached an advanced stage of implementation.

Regional cooperation under Lomé I

Tanzania is one of the nine countries in the region designated by the Commission as the eastern African region. Several of the regional projects for which financial assistance will be provided are located wholly or partly in Tanzania. Approximately ECU 35 million has been set aside for these projects. As shown in table 3, the largest projects are the Lusahunga-Bukombe road and the rehabilitation of the central railway line from Dar es Salaam to Kigoma. This concentration on the transport sector reflects the importance attached by the Commission to the region's transport network, and particularly the transport routes linking the landlocked countries of Burundi, Rwanda and Zambia to the ports on the east African coast.

The Lomé II national indicative programme

The second Lomé Convention was ratified by President Nyerere for the Tanzanian government on 2 August 1980, and in the same year an outline programme of ECU 115 million was agreed on. In keeping with the government's increased emphasis on the development of the agricultural sector, the proportion of the programme allocated to agricultural projects was increased to 35 % (this could subsequently be further increased to 43 %) as compared with 19 % in the first Lomé Convention. As indicated in table 2, the two largest projects in the programme are the coffee development programme and the Iringa region development programme, which continue and extend the projects started under the Lomé I programme. Among the other projects to be financed are the completion of the Lake Victoria circuit road and the access road to the Mufindi pulp and paper mill, both started under Lomé I.

(1) 1 ECU = 10.77 Tanzanian shillings.

Vehicle repair project

1982-1984 — ECU 13 million

The project aims at reviving the country's road transport capacity by rehabilitating about 600 selected trucks and buses, and constructing bodies for another 500. It is expected to add 12 000 tons to the carrying capacity of the national transport fleet. Approximately 60% of the project funds will be spent on the importation of vehicle components and related parts, 20% on the importation of raw materials for the construction of bodies, and the balance for technical assistance and contingencies.

The project will be managed by the National Transport Corporation (NTC), with assistance provided by a team of experts supplied by a German consultancy company. The supplies purchased by the project will be sold to a number of parastatal organizations, and the proceeds of the sales will be credited to a special account operated by NTC on behalf of the Treasury. Funds on this account will subsequently be utilised for rehabilitation projects in the road transport sector, and particularly in the establishment of a national workshop for vehicle rehabilitation.

This project is the first of its kind to be financed by the EEC in an ACP country and its progress will be noted with interest, as the maintenance of road transport fleets in many developing countries has proved to be a difficult problem. o



Above, the unloading of a pre-packed repair kit for the EEC's vehicle repair project and an example of the type of problem faced by Kamata (the national bus company) with its derelict buses. Below, the transformation that can be achieved at only a third of the cost of a new bus



The Lomé II regional cooperation programme

As in the Lomé I programme, the main projects to be implemented in Tanzania concern the regional trans-

port network. Projects under consideration include the rehabilitation of the Tazara railway linking Dar es Salaam and Zambia, and improvements to the Lake Victoria and Lake Tanganyika transport facilities.

Resources made available by the European Investment Bank (EIB)

Under the risk capital heading, the EIB disbursed just over ECU 7.5 million during the period of Lomé I, and a further ECU 7.5 million will be disbursed under Lomé II. Of this total amount, almost ECU 8 million has been allocated for oil exploration at Songo Songo island; this project is co-financed with the World Bank. An amount of ECU 4.9 million was allocated to the Morogoro canvas mill project to supplement the funds already provided under the Lomé I national programme.

Assistance outside the Lomé Convention

The main item under this category is food aid, which has been provided in the form of cereals and milk powder every year since 1975; butteroil has also been provided except in 1975 and 1978. The total value of imports saved through the provision of EEC food aid from 1975 to 1982 amounts to approximately ECU 32 million.

Contribution of EEC aid to Tanzania's development

Taking account of food aid, it can be said that under the EEC programme, an average of ECU 25 million has been disbursed in each of the years 1980 to 1982. This figure compares with a total average aid disbursement figure of around ECU 400 million each year, of which the member states' bilateral programmes have accounted for around ECU 160 million. The Community's programme has therefore accounted for approximately 6% of total aid to Tanzania in recent years, but the total of EEC aid and member states' bilateral aid accounts for about 45% of the total.

Tanzania relies on external sources for more than 45% of its import finance and 60% of its development budget finance. The EEC and its member states are playing an important role in providing part of this external finance.

Evaluation of EEC aid (1975-1982)

Approximately ECU 148 million has been allocated for projects in

Tanzania under the Lomé I Convention. This sum does not include ECU 20.7 million provided under the Stabex system. By the end of April 1983, ECU 75 million, or just over half of the total sum available for projects, had actually been spent, with a further ECU 35 million committed. The pace of project implementation has therefore been rather disappointing, even taking into consideration the inherent complexity of the process of project selection, preparation and appraisal, and implementation. However a sharp increase in disbursements is expected in 1983, as a number of projects are coming to fruition, namely the vehicle repair project and the access road to the Mufindi pulp and paper mill.

Implementation of the Lomé II programme began in 1982 and disbursements at the end of April 1983 had reached ECU 22 million, excluding Stabex payments of nearly ECU 7 million. This compares with a total allocation for projects in Tanzania which is expected to be in excess of ECU 148 million.

As regards the effectiveness of the projects in achieving their intended objectives, this is a more difficult matter to assess, since in most cases one has to wait some years after a project has been completed

before fully evaluating its impact. It is only in the case of production-oriented projects that it is possible to assess the impact of a project by reference to a particular statistic.

Under the heading of production, the EEC is financing three major projects — the coffee development programme, the Iringa region agricultural project, and the Morogoro canvas mill project. The coffee development programme aims to raise growers' yields by improving their techniques of crop husbandry and pest control. Since the project began in 1977, there has been some improvement in production and record output levels were achieved in 1980/81; these were almost maintained in 1982/83 despite disease problems. This suggests that the project is having some positive impact, but it is only over the long term that the benefits of growers' improved husbandry techniques will become clear.

The evaluation of the Iringa region agricultural project is more difficult, as the project has several components directed at supporting several different production activities, including subsistence production, for which it is not easy to obtain reliable statistics. The physical targets for the first phase of the project have been achieved, for example, the training of 12 000 oxen and building

of 30 godowns, but the impact of these activities on output will only become clear after the project evaluation study, which is due to take place in 1983/84.

The Morogoro canvas mill only starts production this year, so its performance cannot be assessed yet.

Future outlook

There is likely to be a sharp increase in disbursements for EEC projects in 1983 and thereafter as a result of the bunching together of the Lomé I and Lomé II programmes. The estimate for 1983 is that project disbursements will be over ECU 60 million compared to a previous level of around ECU 15 million per annum. A large proportion of these funds will be for projects in the transport sector.

In addition to executing the projects referred to above, the Community has offered to provide support to assist the government to implement its "food strategy". Discussions as to the content of such support will begin when the government has agreed on its new agricultural policy and has indicated to the Commission guidelines or an outline plan for the implementation of its proposed "food strategy". ◊



With little foreign exchange to buy agricultural inputs, Tanzania has to look to alternative means of improving agricultural efficiency. The EEC's Iringa agricultural development project encourages farmers to use oxen, of which some 6 000 pairs have been trained since 1977

Table 1 — Lomé I national indicative programme — Main projects

	Funds allocated million ECU
<i>Production</i>	
Coffee improvement programme	12.7
Iringa region agricultural project	6.8
Morogoro canvas mill	14.9
<i>Economic infrastructure</i>	
Lake Victoria circuit road	28.4
Access road to Mufindi pulp mill	11.6
Vehicle repair project	13.0
<i>Social infrastructure</i>	
Mbeya water supply	4.5
Other projects including trade promotion, studies and reserves	11.5
Total funds allocated	103.4
Total funds disbursed (at end April 1983)	65.4

Table 2 — Lomé II national indicative programme — Main projects

	Funds allocated or requested (1) million ECU
<i>Production</i>	
Coffee development programme	13.5
Iringa region agricultural project	19.3
Morogoro canvas mill	2.5
<i>Economic Infrastructure</i>	
Lake Victoria circuit road	(12.3)
Access road to Mufindi pulp mill	7.1
Zanzibar and Pemba port improvements	(10.2)
<i>Social Infrastructure</i>	
Mtwara and Mwanza water supply	16.0
Zanzibar hospitals	(4.0)
Other projects including training, trade promotion and reserves	(30.1) (2)
Total funds available	115.0
Total funds disbursed (at end April 1983)	16.4

(1) Allocations shown in brackets are those proposed by the Tanzanian government, but not yet agreed by the Commission.

(2) Approximately ECU 9.3 m of this amount has been set aside for further extension of the coffee development programme.

N.B. 1 ECU = T. Shs 10.77

Table 5 — Food aid (1975-1982)
Quantity in tons

Cereals	Skimmed milk powder	Butteroil
125 600	15 850	3 100
Estimated total value at world prices : ECU 31.8 million		

Table 3 — Main regional projects in Tanzania

	Probable allocation million ECU
Lusahunga-Bukombe road	20.0
Central railway line rehabilitation (Dar es Salaam to Kigoma)	10.0
Kigoma port rehabilitation	4.9
A number of other projects are under consideration including Tazara railway rehabilitation, improvements to Lake Tanganyika transport facilities and to Dar es Salaam harbour, and a rinderpest control programme.	

Table 4 — Risk capital managed by the EIB

Project	Funds allocated (ECU million)
Morogoro canvas mill	4.90
Songo Songo petroleum exploration	7.85
Other	2.50
	15.25

Table 6 — Stabex

The following amounts have been received to compensate for falls in Tanzania's earnings from commodity exports to the EEC:

Product	Year	Amount (ECU million)
Cotton	1975	1.9
Sisal	1976, 77 & 78	18.8
Coffee	1980 & 81	6.8
Total		27.5

TOGO

President Gnassingbé Eyadéma, visiting the Commission during a stay in Belgium, called for stronger ACP-EEC relations and a forward-looking Convention

The President of the Togolese Republic, General Eyadéma, paid a three-day official visit to Belgium in June and also visited the EEC Commission. It was his first visit to Belgium and also his first visit to Community headquarters.

General Eyadéma had talks with King Baudouin and members of the Belgian government. The talks focused mainly on cooperation between the two countries and the outcome was the affirmation of "a strong will to reactivate and develop relations between Belgium and Togo"—relations which had hitherto been "rather insubstantial", the President told a press conference. "The Belgian government told me it has decided to extend its cooperation to a number of African countries, including Togo", said President Eyadéma. This cooperation with Togo could take many different forms: industrial, commercial and, of course, technical. Its exact nature will be a matter for experts from the two countries to try and work out and translate into reality in the near future.

On 10 June President Eyadéma met EEC Commission president Gaston Thorn and development commissioner Edgard Pisani. President Eyadéma said their talks had been "very positive in every area". "We have always had excellent relations with the Community", he said, adding that the latter had made "many major contributions" to the development of his country. Under Lomé II, the Community's contribution to Togo's development amounts to some ECU 46m (1), of which 35% and 45% respectively are being channelled into rural development and transport infrastructure. In addition,

work on village water engineering will continue and will be allocated financing of ECU 2.8m in view of the severity of the drought which has been affecting Togo over the last two years.



President Gnassingbé Eyadéma is welcomed on his arrival at EEC Commission headquarters by Edgard Pisani (left) and Joseph Kasel, head of protocol

The Community is Togo's main trading partner, the trade balance being in the Community's favour. Its imports from Togo fell from ECU 130.9m in 1979 to ECU 129.8m in 1982, whereas Community exports to Togo increased from ECU 217.4m to ECU 307.5m.

Turning to general trends in the international economy and notably the continuing imbalances between industrialized countries and the ACP states, President Eyadéma considered that "this situation should be closely examined during the negotiations due to begin shortly on a new

convention". He reaffirmed the importance Togo attaches to the Stabex system, but pointed out that this important facility for stabilizing export earning could encounter further difficulties if the new convention did not resolve satisfactorily the problem of the funds available to back the system. The President said, however, that there was also a more radical solution to the Stabex problem, i.e. guaranteeing the prices of the raw materials exported by the ACP states. Taking the example of phosphates in Togo, he pointed out how difficult it was to undertake any ongoing development action on the basis of the earnings from phos-

phates, his country's main export, since prices had fallen from US\$ 115 in 1974 to some US\$ 23 at present. At the same time, the prices of industrial products and foodstuffs which the ACP states needed were constantly on the increase. "These are the problems which the industrialized countries should help the developing countries to solve in order to overcome the crisis, which is affecting us more than you", General Eyadéma said.

The President launched an appeal to the ACP and Community representatives who will be negotiating

(1) 1 ECU = FF 6.852 = CFAF 342.614

the next convention. He hopes that it will be a third Lomé Convention and said Togo would be happy to host once again the signing ceremony should the other states request it. Returning to matters of substance, President Eyadéma also said that the ACP states were rather disappointed by the overall results of the present Convention. "In the light of our needs", he said, "the Convention should have made allowance for the trend of world prices, namely the inflation which not only reduces the purchasing power of our meagre incomes but—above—all—the real value of development aid funds". The next convention should represent real progress towards a level of cooperation which would mean more secure financial commitments geared to more ambitious objectives for the ACP countries. "Such cooperation", he went on to say, "would benefit the Community even further in that our economies would develop rapidly". He also said the ACP states and the Community countries would enjoy the same happy future if they joined together in organizing their economic relations. In a joint communiqué released at the close of the visit, President Eyadéma and the Commission reaffirmed the major role of regional and intra-ACP cooperation in the strengthening of ACP-EEC relations.



EEC Commission

"The present Convention should have made allowance for the trend of world prices, namely the inflation which not only reduces the purchasing power of our meagre incomes but—above all—the real value of development aid funds"

"Togo understands the situation in Ghana"

ECOWAS (Economic Community of West African States) is one of the main regional organizations in Africa. Good relations between its members should help to strengthen economic cooperation, but for some time there has been tension along the frontiers

of countries in the region, particularly between Togo and Ghana and Ghana and Nigeria. Questioned about the threat constituted by the consequences of political misunderstandings between neighbouring countries in a continent where the situation was still delicate and the balances achieved were still precarious, President Eyadéma replied: "Togo understands the present situation in Ghana". He said it was not his aim—and it would certainly not be in the interests of the Togolese people — to aggravate the situation but rather to "seek together with the Ghanaian authorities, if they so wish, the best way of bringing about peace in Ghana and in the region".

"Just because Ghana has closed its frontiers for economic reasons, Togo is not going to adopt any kind of hostile attitude towards it", General Eyadéma said, and added: "It is very difficult for a country which lacks internal stability to be at ease and undertake long-term development action". It was largely for this reason and also because Togo did not interfere in the internal problems of other countries that he thought that, for the present, Ghana could best be helped by being given moral and practical support in tackling its severe economic and social difficulties, particularly with the sudden arrival of hundreds of thousands of its nationals long settled in a neighbouring country, which was, moreover, a member of ECOWAS. In this connection, President Eyadéma told the *Courier* that despite the weather problems which had reduced Togo's agricultural capacity in 1982-83, foodstuffs were still being exported from his country to Ghana. This was being done even though such exports placed Togolese prices under strong pressure, since farmers did not have unlimited buffer stocks at their disposal.

The Togolese President also expressed the wish that the ACP Chamber of Commerce, an idea he had floated at the signing of the present Lomé Convention in 1979, would make it possible, once it was set up, to organize trade more effectively between its member states, as more information on what was available in each country or region would make the provision of supplies easier. ○ L.P.



EEC Commission

Restricted meeting between President Eyadéma—accompanied (left to right) by Mr Dogo, technical adviser to the President, Mr Akapo-Ahianyo, minister of foreign affairs and cooperation, and Mr Gassou, minister of rural development—and EEC Commission president Gaston Thorn, flanked by (right to left) Edgard Pisani, development commissioner, and Dieter Frisch, director-general for development

The OECS: regional integration in the Eastern Caribbean

Perhaps its acronym is less well known than those of a number of other Caribbean regional institutions, such as Caricom, the main one—yet for its seven member states, it is certainly of no less significance. Like its more illustrious big brother, which is just a decade old, the OECS also had reason to celebrate an anniversary on 4 July this year. It came into being two years ago on that day, the 8th anniversary of the Chaguaramas Treaty which established Caricom. The treaty establishing the OECS itself was signed on 18 June 1981 at Basseterre, St Kitts.

Antigua and Barbuda, Dominica, Grenada, Montserrat, St Kitts-Nevis, St Lucia and St Vincent and the Grenadines form the septet of island states which joined together on 4 July 1981 in the Organization of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS). Their combined population totals about 560 000, the total surface of the 'seven sisters' covers 2911 sq km² and their combined GNPs total US \$ 470 million. Within the 13-member Caricom, the OECS forms a sort of counterbalance, sometimes perhaps a fifth force, with regard to the four larger Caricom states, Barbados, Guyana, Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago, the other Caricom members being the Bahamas and Belize.

A streamlining operation

The decision to create the OECS was taken in October 1980, after two years of consultation, by the Council of Ministers of the West Indies Associated States (WISA), a political decision-making body, established in 1966.

The OECS sets out to promote and pursue the following objectives: cooperation between the member states themselves and at the regional and international levels; unity and solidarity, the defence of sovereignty, territorial integrity and independence; assistance to the member states in international affairs; foreign policy harmonization, including to some extent joint foreign representation and common services; economic integration along the lines of the East Caribbean Common Market (ECCM).

The coming into being of the OECS meant a certain streamlining of sub-regional organizations: WISA was replaced by the OECS Authority, the OECS policy-making body, composed of the seven heads of governments; three ministerial committees now deal respectively with foreign affairs, defence and security, and economic affairs; a central secretar-

iat is headquartered in St Lucia, and an economic affairs division has been set up in Antigua, the latter assuming, in fact, the functions of the previous East Caribbean Common Market secretariat.

The East Caribbean Tourist Association (ECTA) is continuing joint promotion of tourism but other institutions are coming more and more under the OECS wing. The East Caribbean Currency Authority, which has administered the common currency, the East Caribbean dollar, will become a fully-fledged OECS Central Bank on 1 October this year.

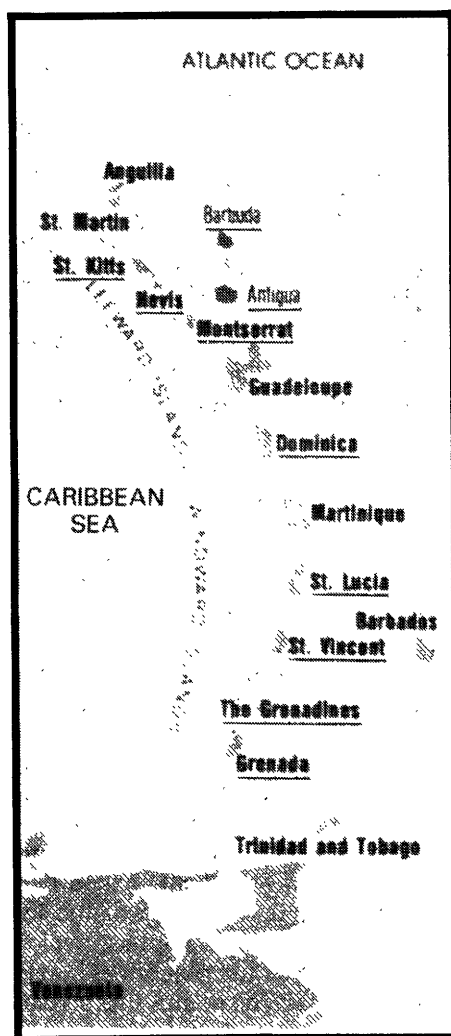
Common weaknesses

From an economic point of view, the OECS member states share a few common traits; all face budgetary problems which few would envy and all rely heavily on external finance for development expenditure, which has become scarce as the recession bites.

Generally their industry is little developed and faces the problems of limited market size and geographical spread. The typical constraints of island agriculture hamper most of the states. To varying degrees they are also dependent on the sensitive tourist trade.

Mr Swinburne Lestrade from Dominica, director of the OECS Economic Affairs Secretariat which itself employs over 90% of all OECS staff, keeps his finger on the economic pulse of the seven OECS member states. He could dwell on the list of weaknesses of these small island economies, but he is fundamentally convinced that "they can achieve a certain degree of viability, but not without continued financial and technical assistance from the outside world".

Much needs to be done, according to Mr Lestrade, to strengthen overall public and private sector management in order "to cope with the fundamental lack of absorptive capacity of aid in general, even if the number of projects feasible for these small economies to pursue is relatively small". The lack of qualified manpower to plan ahead on a sufficiently long-term basis has, for the most



part, made the focus of development too local, and that is where, in his view, the OECS comes in. It can broaden the "outlook" and make it more long-term.

Rethinking production and marketing

Mr Lestrade feels that "when considering what commodities the OECS can reasonably produce and where it could market that produce, the need for agricultural diversification, industrial complement aid and concentration on export markets is obvious".

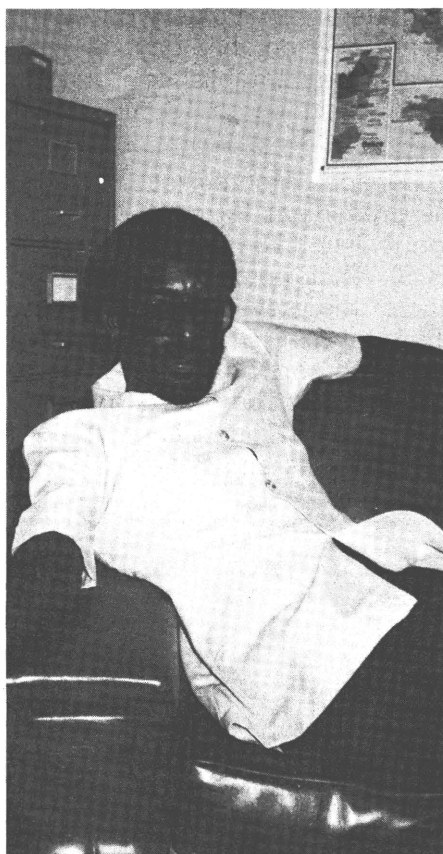
Agricultural diversification by moving away from bananas in the Windward Islands, for example, or away from sugar in St Lucia, and more attention to non-traditional commodities, such as fresh fruit or fish, will involve the problem of motivating people in rural activities. Marketing, both within and outside the region, of such new or more developed produce is hampered by production difficulties in such areas as cost levels determining competitiveness, regularity of supplies and quality of produce. "Some countries in this area, like Grenada, are right now showing agriculture is viable and thus pointing the way to others", Mr Lestrade feels.

As far as industry is concerned, he believes "the focus has to be on extra-regional markets". The OECS market itself is too restricted. Industries today are more competing with than complementing each other. Economically viable import substitution is only possible to a certain limit. It all adds up to confirm his outward-looking view. Industrial planning and putting together a scheme for allocating productive industries to OECS, and on a wider scale, Caricom members, will be a major, and not all that easy, task for the future.

Lomé applied to the Caribbean: a failure?

Mr Lestrade has kept a close watch on the policies of major donors, be they national and/or regional, towards OECS member states. His organization has benefited from an ECU 1.2 million EEC grant to provide technical assistance to common project planning and instruction services.

"For its intent and purpose, the Lomé II paper reads very well, but how much real potential for development of our seven states is there in it? From that point of view, I am inclined to view it as a failure", he said. Many aspects of Lomé have, in his view, not fully worked to the Caribbean's best interests, "although admittedly both sides are to be blamed for that for a whole number of reasons", he stresses.



Swinburne Lestrade
Director of the OECS Economic Affairs Secretariat

Weak spots are identified by him in the fields of trade and industrial cooperation. The trade promotion provisions are, in his view, insufficient but also under-utilized. "Also, data available so far seem to indicate Caribbean-Europe trade has not progressed but rather stagnated; nor, if one looks at the structure of that trade, has there been a real change in any important sub-group, for instance, no more Caribbean manufactured goods have been exported to Europe". This argument makes him point out the weaknesses of the industrial cooperation chapter "which hasn't satisfied its objectives". He judges as insufficient the CID's role, "which our seven states didn't really

know how to use and which did not have its own resources, like a venture capital fund, nor a permanent Caribbean representation". The lack of information on what the CID could really do for OECS members, can "even be widened to most Convention titles", he thinks. To him, a possible solution would be to attribute a much larger role to such regional bodies as the OECS, if it could dispose of the necessary resources both human and in capital. Such an approach could save time and energy and avoid each member state tying up too much staff with international cooperation when they already have serious management staffing problems. It could possibly speed up the study-proposal-commitment-disbursal routine of projects.

"We will make our voice heard"

In two years of existence, the OECS has quickly gained momentum based on greater regional coherence among the "seven sisters". Their attempts to speak with one voice have made them more effective in the pursuit of their common interests and the defence of the proper kinship they share. Much remains to be done to maximize regional integration at the OECS level. In late May this year an OECS summit underlined the need to preserve its still young and therefore fragile unity, certainly in times of economic recession. Funding the OECS properly when all its members face serious cash flow problems may yet prove hard to do. Yet all seven seem convinced it is better to join in a good chorus than to try a bad and maybe risky solo. Meanwhile, others like Anguilla and the British Virgin Islands are seeking membership too.

The wider Caribbean is known for its catalytic role and attachment to the Third World causes and concerns, whether in a UN, Group of 77 or ACP context. The OECS states themselves, all less developed countries, will in future try even more to push their particular interests both vis-à-vis other developing countries and industrialized countries. "We will certainly make our voice heard in the forthcoming ACP-EEC negotiations", Mr Lestrade confirms, "but the point is, what response will we get from the EEC in these times of recession?" ○ R.D.B.

LIAT, the island-hopping airline

Whether you are in the Caribbean for leisure or business, travelling can be complicated. How do you get from Montserrat to St Kitts? Or, even more difficult, from Carriacou, part of the Grenadines, to St Lucia? Unless you have plenty of time to spend and can wait for an old boat to call upon those places, or unless you are rich enough to afford an air charter, the most regular, reliable and safe way to get to your destination is fly LIAT, the small feeder airline owned by 11 Caribbean governments.

A decade of intra-regional air transport

Back in 1956 Capt. Frank Delisle from St Kitts funded Leewards Islands Air Transport Services Ltd and started operating one plane between Montserrat and Antigua. After becoming a 75 % subsidy of British West Indian Airways, L.I.A.T. soon had more aircraft in service covering more routes. BWIA's shares were bought out in 1971 by Court Line, who introduced the first jet; but soaring energy prices led to the withdrawal of the jet by April 1974 and to Court Line's folding up that year. In November 1974 the governments of the "associated states" originally involved with L.I.A.T., plus Grenada, bought the company and rebaptised it LIAT (1974) Ltd. Barbados, Trinidad and Tobago, Guyana and Jamaica became shareholders later on; today none of the 11 shareholding governments has a controlling interest, Barbados and Trinidad being the major shareholders with 15 % each.

LIAT's headquarters are based at Antigua's international airport, Coolidge, where some 300 of a total of 660 employees work. Here one finds the company's administration, its hangar, main workshops and stores. Throughout its network LIAT has a number of sales offices, check-in and ground-handling facilities, and a reduced maintenance facility in Barbados. LIAT has also two small subsidiary companies—who are said to go "where the big ones don't"—with independent management: one is Is-

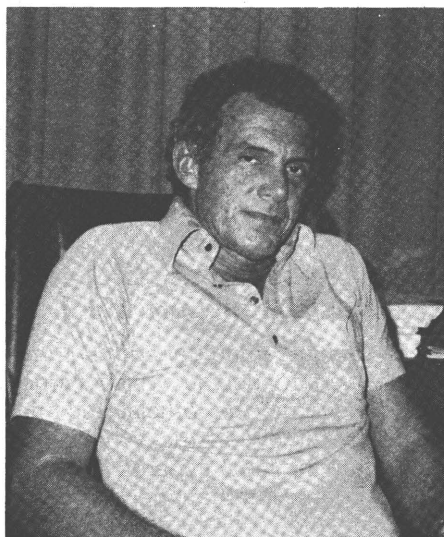
land Services Ltd, which provides a link between Grenada and St Lucia, covering most of the Grenadines chain and St Vincent; the other is Four Island Air Services Ltd, which operates the St Kitts-Nevis and Antigua-Barbuda routes.

LIAT is not only involved in scheduled passenger services but also carries freight, runs occasional charter flights and is involved in ramp-handling services for some of the larger companies.

Together with its subsidiaries, LIAT operates five 48-seater British Aerospace 748s, widely known as Avros; six Britten Norman Islanders (9 seats); three DeHavilland Twin Otters (19 seats)—one of which is owned by the Montserrat government, which pays LIAT an operating fee—two Trislanders (14 seats); and one Brazilian Bandeirante (18 seats). Many of the aircraft are old, some over 15 years—in fact one of the Avros is world record-holder with well over 70 000 happy landings—and if they were replaced, maintenance and overhaul costs could be significantly cut down.

Problems in the air

Coping with the problems inherent with such a variety of aircraft is only one of the worries facing managing director Capt. Arthur Foster. As with any manager in the airline business, rationalization, i.e. cutting down



Capt. Arthur Foster
LIAT managing director

operating losses and increasing load factors, has been his main concern. The international economic environment has not been favourable to air transport over the past few years, with soaring fuel prices and diminishing passenger numbers preventing most airlines world-wide from breaking even, let alone being profitable.

Besides these international factors, LIAT faces its own typical constraints, basically financial and technical, most of which were identified in an EEC-financed study costing over ECU 400 000 and frequently referred to by LIAT managers. It has become a sort of LIAT "bible".

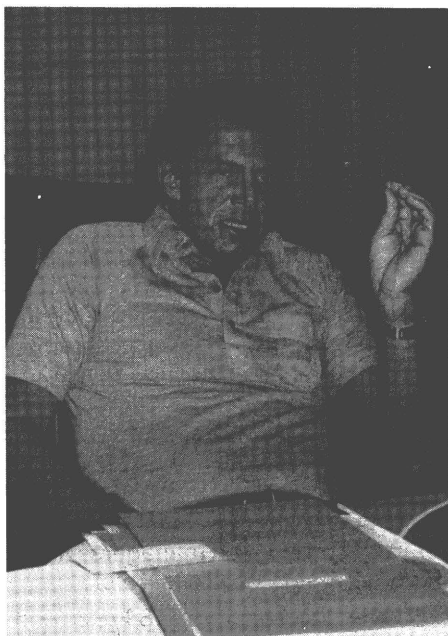
"Over the fiscal year 81/82 (ending 31 October) we kept our heads above the water and, in fact, probably made some profits due to increased air fares and slight fuel price decreases; but we have to wait for the definite audit figures", Capt. Foster said. In fiscal year 1981 LIAT's operating loss totalled almost EC \$ (1) 900 000, as against more than EC \$2.7 million the previous year. Its 1981 net income of EC \$3.3 million compared significantly well with the 1980 net loss of EC \$4.5 million. In 1982, LIAT made its first operating profit—EC \$653 000—in a decade. The annual recurrent loss is covered by the shareholding governments according to an agreed percentage for each.

LIAT's present load factor to break even is about 63 % overall, but obviously differs widely according to the routes; many of them are very short, the shortest hop lasting only 14 minutes.

From a technical point of view, the study evidenced such areas of constraint as the limitations of the hangar, workshops and stores; the insufficiency of communications and navigation equipment; and the lack of updated ramp and wide-body handling equipment. On top of that, management could be even more streamlined if the company computer had better software and technical assistance would be welcome in certain departments, such as developing an adequate marketing structure.

An EEC-funded ECU 5.7 million project, approved earlier this year,

(1) ECU 1.0 = East Caribbean \$ 2.47.



"A streamlined overall Caribbean air transportation policy, clearly defining how both feeder and trunk carriers can get their fair share of the market, would be more than welcome"

will cope with this so-called "immediate needs package" in the technical and organizational fields.

Replacing old aircraft

Walking on the airstrip in the company of Capt. Foster to have a closer look at the Avro record-holder for landings, one can to some extent sense the well-trying, not to say well-flighted, relationship between pilot and plane. Yet some of these oldies really should be sold and replaced by new aircraft, as this could reduce maintenance costs by some EC \$3 million per year and thus redress part of LIAT's none too brilliant balance sheet. Selling four old Avros and buying three new ones, or similar types of aircraft, would involve some ECU 22.7 million. Under Lomé II regional cooperation, a sum of ECU 14 million has been initially earmarked for this. To cover the ECU 8.7 million shortfall (roughly the equivalent of one new Avro plus spares), LIAT has approached the EIB. The Canadian Development Agency, for its part, has been asked to provide concessionary finance for the acquisition of a new Twin Otter.

Feasibility studies are now being undertaken to examine closely the pros, cons and possible options of this re-equipment programme, which Capt. Foster considers "vital for the future of LIAT, which is in itself vital to the Eastern Caribbean".



This particular LIAT Avro is a world record-holder with well over 70 000 happy landings

A dual function

Indeed, for several Caribbean countries LIAT represents the most important air link with the outside world, and in some cases it is the only one. Together with its subsidiaries, LIAT wants to continue fulfilling to its best ability this vital role of inter-island communication. Its other principal function is clearly one of being a feeder carrier linking up the whole Caribbean, and the eastern part in particular, to the main international airports in the area—Trinidad, Barbados and Antigua—where the trunk routes start or end.

Capt. Foster feels the company "is only just now fitting into its dual role properly, and we certainly don't tend to overstretch and go into wild expansion we couldn't cope with, such as putting on jets and flying the main trunk routes".

Air politics are not easy in the Caribbean and competition on the larger trunks is tough; the financing of such expansion is difficult to imagine at present.

Responding to a basic transport need

The Chaguaramas Caricom summit in July had to decide which carrier would become the official regional carrier, a somewhat tricky matter in view of all the legal aspects involved (traffic rights, international route assignment, etc.).

"A streamlined overall Caribbean air transportation policy, clearly de-

fining how both feeder and trunk carriers can get their fair share of the market, would be more than welcome", is the LIAT managing director's view.

Obviously much has to do also with being tuned into the Caribbean's largest industry, tourism, and the vital role air transport there plays, as fares both for long-distance and for local hops directly influence tourism trends in the area. From a fares point of view, Capt. Foster did not exclude the possibility of an incentive regional fare which could probably spread the tourists in a more balanced way over the area, to the benefit of the less important islands. Competition between the larger airlines and the feeder carriers, to some extent a David and Goliath contest, must and can be kept fair, as they are necessarily complementary.

Becoming an even more efficient, economically viable and possibly profitable carrier, as the 1982 results show, need not to be beyond LIAT's scope. Its socio-economic impact on the whole of the Eastern Caribbean is evident, as about 60% of the 430 000 passengers carried in 1981 were West Indians. In the promotion of Caribbean development, reliable and adequate air services are indispensable. An upgraded and re-equipped LIAT, "sticking to its role as a basic feeder carrier", will be able to respond better to this area's vital air transportation needs. o

R.D.B.

Facts and figures

EC-ACP trade by volume

VEGETABLE OILS: The ACP countries take an appreciate share of EC imports (groundnut, palm and coconut oil). Nevertheless the leading ACP supplier (Senegal) is only fifth in the list of EC suppliers. The quantities exported have been more or less constant apart from 1981. However, exports regained their previous level in 1982.

FRESH BANANAS: The quantities coming from the leading ACP suppliers are well behind those of Latin American and DOM producers (the total tonnage from the first five ACP countries is less than that of Panama, the leading extra-EUR 10 supplier). The quantities exported by ACP countries to the EC have been extremely stable.

RICE: The quantities imported by the EC from ACP countries have risen in a continuous and sustained manner. However, only Suriname occupies a significant position, occupying second place among EC suppliers. It is, by the way, interesting to note that the ACPs' share is close to that of the developing countries of Asia.

COCOA AND DERIVATIVES: The quantities exported since 1976 have maintained a constant level, apart from a strong rise in 1982. In spite of stability in the total, the ACP countries have attained a preponderant position in Community imports. The imports from the leading ACP supplier to the EC, Ivory Coast, largely exceed the total imports from non ACP suppliers.

SUGAR: The quantities exported by the ACP countries to the EC have been remarkably stable since 1976. The level of the quantities exported caused the ACP countries to occupy a preponderant place in EC imports. Mauritius is by far the leading supplier (nearly 50 % of ACP tonnage).

The first five ACP suppliers to the EC are also the first five from all extra-EUR 10.

COFFEE: The ACP countries take a substantial share of EC imports after Latin America. Ivory Coast, the leading ACP exporter, nevertheless only comes third in extra-EUR 10 and rather far behind Brazil and Colombia. The quantities exported by ACP countries have been stable between 1976 and 1982. The year 1982 was the best of the period.

exception of one year (1978), ACP exports of tobacco to the EC have been maintained at around 81 000 tonnes. Zimbabwe and Malawi, the leading ACP suppliers, are respectively 3rd and 4th after the USA and Brazil.

TEA: A comparison of quantities shows that Kenya, the leading ACP supplier to the EC, is second (after India) amongst all EC suppliers, the fourth being Malawi. The importance of these two countries is the reason



Processing meat from Botswana, an export to the Community which still runs into some problems

MEAT MEALS, OFFAL: These products, characterized by a high unit value, merit mention due to the spectacular increase in EC imports from ACP countries. This growth, however, slowed down in 1982. Only Mauritania is a significant exporter and ranked fifth amongst EC suppliers. Overall the ACP countries' share in total EUR 10 imports is low.

TOBACCO: The ACP countries enjoy a significant share of the EC market, a market, moreover, which is rather largely diversified. With the

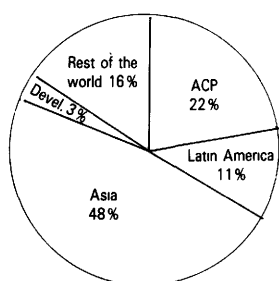
for the significant share of ACP countries (35 % against 45 % for Asia).

SHELLFISH, PREPARATIONS, CONSERVES: This is a product with a high unit value for which there is only a low ACP export tonnage, mainly from Senegal. The quantities exported to the Community have fluctuated strongly; the year 1982 was one of the worst of the period. The result is a negligible ACP share in EC imports, although this product figures in a good position in their agricultural exports.

VEGETABLE OILS:
Extra EUR 10 imports (tonnes)

ACP partners	
Mean 1976 to 1981	Year 1982
405 459	453 241

Partner Zones

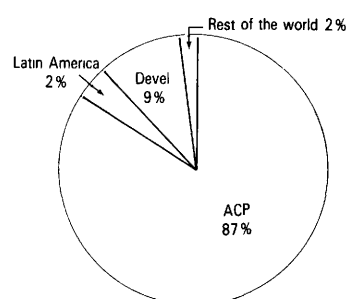


5 first partners			
ACP		Other countries	
Senegal	141 168	Malaysia	412 208
Papua N. Guinea	113 626	Philippines	342 114
Ivory Coast	71 057	Indonesia	194 161
Nigeria	32 037	Argentina	142 259
Zaire	17 436	USA	108 988

SUGAR:
Extra EUR 10 imports (tonnes)

ACP partners	
Mean 1976 to 1981	Year 1982
1 278 991	1 293 737

Partner zones

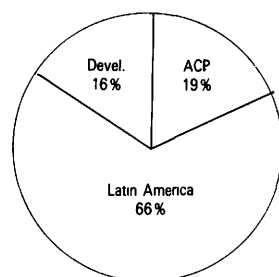


5 first partners			
ACP		5 first partners	
Mauritius	523 347	Reunion	112 062
Guyana	167 556	Austria	23 372
Fiji	158 018	Guadeloupe	22 376
Swaziland	120 814	Caribbean	21 468
Jamaica	115 292	Czechoslovakia	2 483

FRESH BANANAS:
Extra EUR 10 imports (tonnes)

ACP partners	
Mean 1976 to 1981	Year 1982
337 511	339 236

Partner Zones

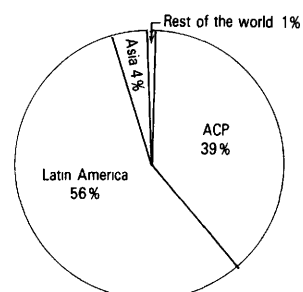


5 first partners			
ACP		Other countries	
Ivory Coast	89 640	Panama	289 150
Cameroon	48 906	Colombia	258 328
St Lucia	41 282	Costa Rica	238 783
Suriname	30 580	Equador	201 877
Somalia	28 929	Martinique	159 405

COFFEE:
Extra EUR 10 imports (tonnes)

ACP partners	
Mean 1976 to 1981	Year 1982
516 257	565 119

Partner zones

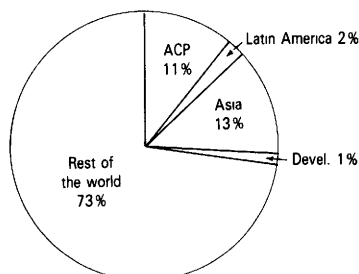


5 first partners			
ACP		Other countries	
Ivory Coast	160 173	Brazil	338 337
Cameroon	69 587	Columbia	271 491
Zaire	62 167	El Salvador	56 499
Uganda	62 092	Indonesia	40 177
Kenya	46 380	Guatemala	37 170

RICE:
Extra EUR 10 imports (tonnes)

ACP partners	
Mean 1976 to 1981	Year 1982
60 641	99 305

Partner zones

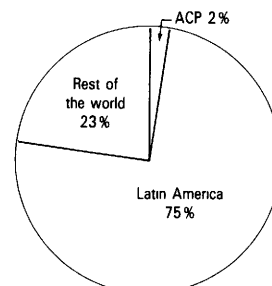


5 first partners			
ACP		Other countries	
Surinam	99 138	USA	597 283
Solomon Is.	162	Thailand	43 825
Nigeria	3	Burma	42 653
Sierra Leone	0	Australia	32 562
		India	29 699

MEAT MEALS, OFFAL, FISH:
Extra EUR 10 imports (tonnes)

ACP partners	
Mean 1976 to 1981	Year 1982
20 667	15 564

Partner zones

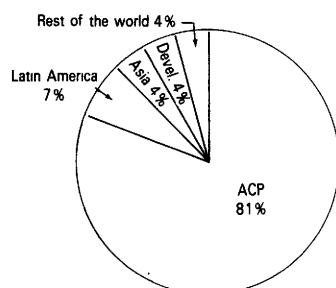


5 first partners			
ACP		Other countries	
Mauritania	15 470	Chile	403 966
Senegal	94	Peru	123 495
		Norway	65 195
		Iceland	37 733
		Faroe Is.	14 677

COCOA AND DERIVATIVES:
Extra EUR 10 imports (tonnes)

ACP partners	
Mean 1976 to 1981	Year 1982
510 050	619 119

Partner zones

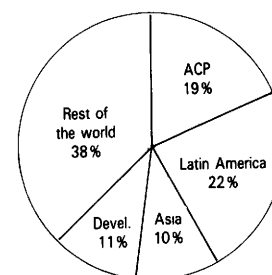


5 first partners			
ACP		Other countries	
Ivory Coast	212 897	Brazil	31 169
Ghana	157 101	Malaysia	22 572
Cameroon	107 763	Ecuador	12 663
Nigeria	81 501	Switzerland	9 490
Papua N. Guinea	15 239	Sweden	5 328

RAW TOBACCO:
Extra EUR 10 imports (tonnes)

ACP partners	
Mean 1976 to 1981	Year 1982
81 137	80 293

Partner zones

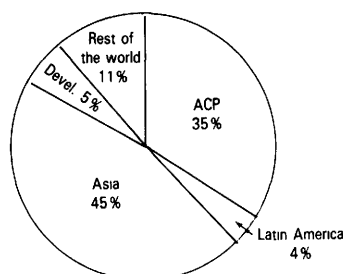


5 first partners			
ACP		Other countries	
Zimbabwe	40 266	USA	95 114
Malawi	25 466	Brazil	59 849
Zambia	6 735	India	24 492
Tanzania	6 267	South Korea	22 863
Cameroon	706	Canada	20 030

TEA:
Extra EUR 10 imports (tonnes)

ACP partners	
Mean 1976 to 1981	Year 1982
87 663	92 123

Partner zones

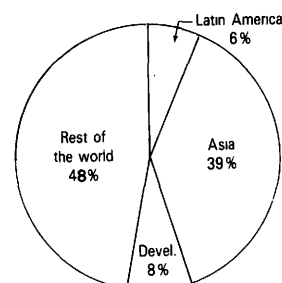


5 first partners			
ACP		Other countries	
Kenya	53 987	India	65 120
Malawi	22 190	Sri Lanka	32 017
Tanzania	6 217	China	19 255
Mauritius	3 287	Mozambique	14 153
Rwanda	2 643	Indonesia	11 881

SHELLFISH, PREPARATIONS, CONSERVES:
Extra EUR 10 imports (tonnes)

ACP partners	
Mean 1976 to 1981	Year 1982
210	140

Partner zones



5 first partners			
ACP		Other countries	
Senegal	136	Thailand	12 067
Gabon	3	Norway	7 467
Ivory Coast	1	Malaysia	6 102
		Canada	3 604
		Spain	3 073

Transport in the European Community

The European Community is covered with a very dense network of roads and railways. Table 1 provides data on the length of railway lines and the number of passengers transported each year. To facilitate interpretation, information on area and population density is also added.

The greatest concentration of railways is found in the Benelux countries and West Germany, which also have the highest population density. However, France has the largest network of railway lines, but it also has far and away the biggest surface area and the population is more spread out.

The railway system was built up from the middle of the 19th century and reached its greatest extent in the inter-war years. With the development of the motor-car the railway system has been reduced in size though it still plays a vital role in pas-

senger and merchandise transport.

The first motorways were built in the 1930s when cars started to come off conveyor-belts in hundreds of thousands. Since the Second World War over 25 000 km have been put in service and the system is still in expansion. The greatest concentration is in West Germany, Benelux and Italy. France and the UK only started building motorways in the early '60s and the network is still not complete. Again it is worthwhile looking at land area and population density to get the maximum amount of information out of the data.

Further notes on unemployment

In the May-June issue of the *Courier* we pointed out that unemployment in the European Community

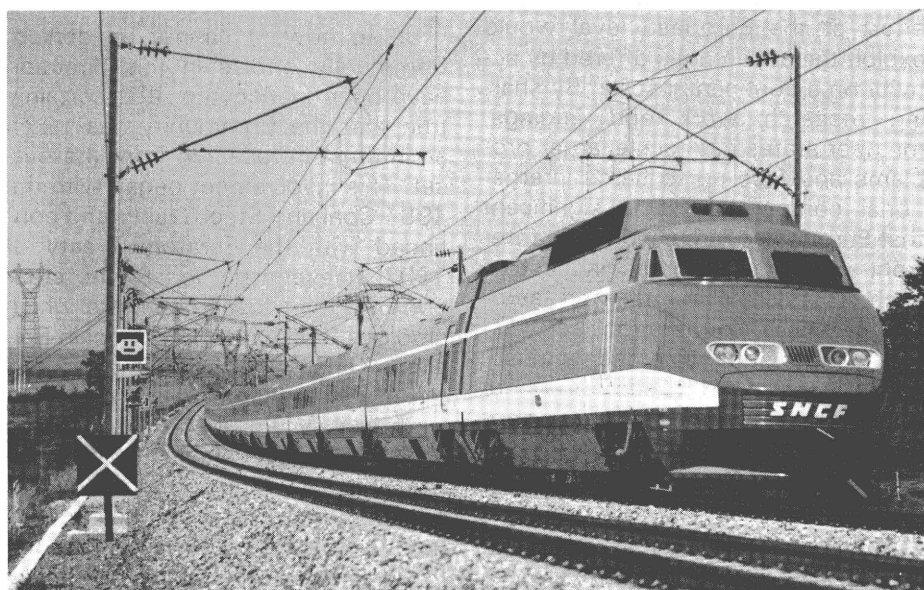
was at its highest level since World War II (average for 1982: 10.6 million or 9.3 % of the civilian working population). Young people under the age of 25 account for over four million unemployed or over 40 % of the total. The percentage varies however considerably from country to country (see table 2, next page).

There are about 43 million people in the age group 12-24, or some 16 % of the total population. About half of these are following some kind of schooling. The other half are considered as belonging to the working population but, as noted above, over four million of these are out of work at the moment.

The table also shows that 40.8 % of the registered unemployed were women (all ages). The number of women in the working population is around 43 million or 37.7 % of the total working population. In the Community as a whole, therefore, women are proportionally over-represented amongst the unemployed.

Table 1 — Transport in the European Community—Some figures for 1981

Country	Area km ²	Population density km ²	Length of railway lines 1000 km	Number of passengers Mio	Length of motorways km	Number of cars '000
B	30 500	323	4.0	167	1 315	3 206
DK	43 100	119	2.0	134	515	1 367
D	248 600	248	28.4	1 109	7 784	23 730
GR	132 000	73	2.5	10	91	911
F	544 000	99	34.4	697	5 715	18 800
IRL	70 300	48	2.0	15	—	778
I	301 300	189	16.2	396	5 900	1 860
L	2 600	140	0.3	12	44	133
NL	41 200	343	3.0	205	1 838	4 609
UK	244 100	229	17.9	724	2 946	1 591
EUR 10	1 657 600	163	107.7	3 469	26 150	8 805



After being seriously threatened by road transport, the railways have made a come-back through modernization, comfort, speed and safety.



Table 2

Country	Share of young people under 25 in the unemployed (%, average 1982)	Share of women in the unemployed (%, average 1982)
EUR 10	40.3	40.8
B	38.6	55.8
DK	29.4	42.9
D	25.3	44.3
GR	—	38.9
F	42.3	50.0
IRL	29.3	24.1
I	49.3	48.6
L	46.5	46.5
NL	44.8	30.6
UK	41.9	26.9

Towards a European research and science strategy

The member states of the European Community possess considerable research potential. The personnel, the teams, the equipment, the financial resources (even though sometimes inadequate), the mechanisms for transforming knowledge into innovation represent powerful factors for progress with a potential capacity virtually without peer in the world. (1)

The Community has 350 000 research workers and accounts for one fifth of world expenditure on research, development and demonstration (R, D and D). Defence projects aside, the Community's research capacity is double that of Japan and only 27 % less than that of the United States.

Over the past few years, however, there has been a measurable decline in the scientific productivity of European research. There are gaps in multi-disciplinary research, insufficient coordination between applied and basic research, inadequate industrial take-up and international discrepancies in patent law. The inevitable consequence has been a reduction in the range of Europe's contribution to scientific and technological knowledge.

To hold its own against fierce international competition, Europe must take action. Its future is at stake. Renewed research efforts are vital to cope with the challenges posed by the modern world; the economic crisis means that millions of new jobs must be created; the decline and fall of European competitiveness in both new and traditional industries must be halted; dependence on imported sources of energy must be reduced; society must be prepared for changes arising from the new technologies, which have called traditional life and work patterns into question, but could provide the springboard for a new resurgence of indus-

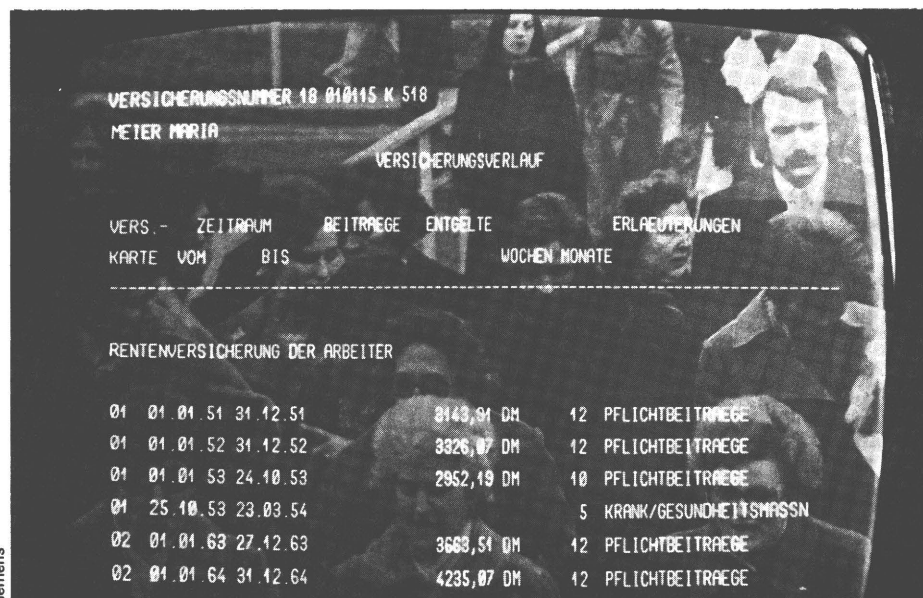
try and services; finally, action must be taken to end hunger and underdevelopment in the Third World, Europe's principal external partner.

Member states are already conducting a variety of research programmes in these fields. There is no point in the Community 'Europeanizing' these efforts simply for the sake of it. But there is a strong argument—and need—for a substantial improvement in Community research activity proper. Increased research effort at the European level would exploit the advantages offered by activity on a continental scale. By sharing research work and findings, member states can tackle larger problems and face up to fierce international competition. It is significant that Europe has remained at the forefront of world progress in sectors such as nuclear energy and aerospace where cooperation between the member states has been intense. It has lost ground in sectors where there has been limited research cooperation, such as computers, biotechnology, motor cars and chemicals.

It therefore follows that Communi-

ty research should concentrate on objectives which may be beyond the reach of independent national action. This might involve schemes which need enormous financial or human resources or require a huge market to make them financially viable. On the other hand, it might involve programmes which have, of their very nature, to be tackled internationally, such as action to combat sea pollution. But other justifications for joint Community efforts can be found. Member states often face identical problems and it clearly makes sense to tackle them jointly. Common research programmes could also assist the development of Community policies.

Up to now, it cannot be denied, Community efforts in this direction have been inadequate. It is certainly true that the Community has taken an interest in research from the outset. This involvement began with the 1951 Coal and Steel Treaty and continued with the Euratom Treaty of 1957. It eventually led to the creation of a joint research centre which employs 2 000 people at Geel in Belgium, Karlsruhe in Germany and Petten in the Netherlands but mainly at Ispra in Italy. In 1974 new research programmes were launched in a variety of areas, including industry, the environment, energy and health. The work is carried out either at the joint



VERSICHERUNGSNUMMER 18 010115 K 518		METER MARIA		VERSICHERUNGSVERLAUF	
VERS.-KARTE	ZEITRAUM VOM BIS	BEITRÄGE	ENTGELTE WOCHEN	ERLÄUTERUNGEN MONATE	
RENTENVERSICHERUNG DER ARBEITER					
01	01.01.51	31.12.51	8143,91 DM	12	PFLICHTBEITRÄGE
01	01.01.52	31.12.52	3326,07 DM	12	PFLICHTBEITRÄGE
01	01.01.53	24.10.53	2952,19 DM	10	PFLICHTBEITRÄGE
01	25.10.53	23.03.54		5	KRANK-/GESUNDHEITSSCHN
02	01.01.63	27.12.63	3688,51 DM	12	PFLICHTBEITRÄGE
02	01.01.64	31.12.64	4235,07 DM	12	PFLICHTBEITRÄGE

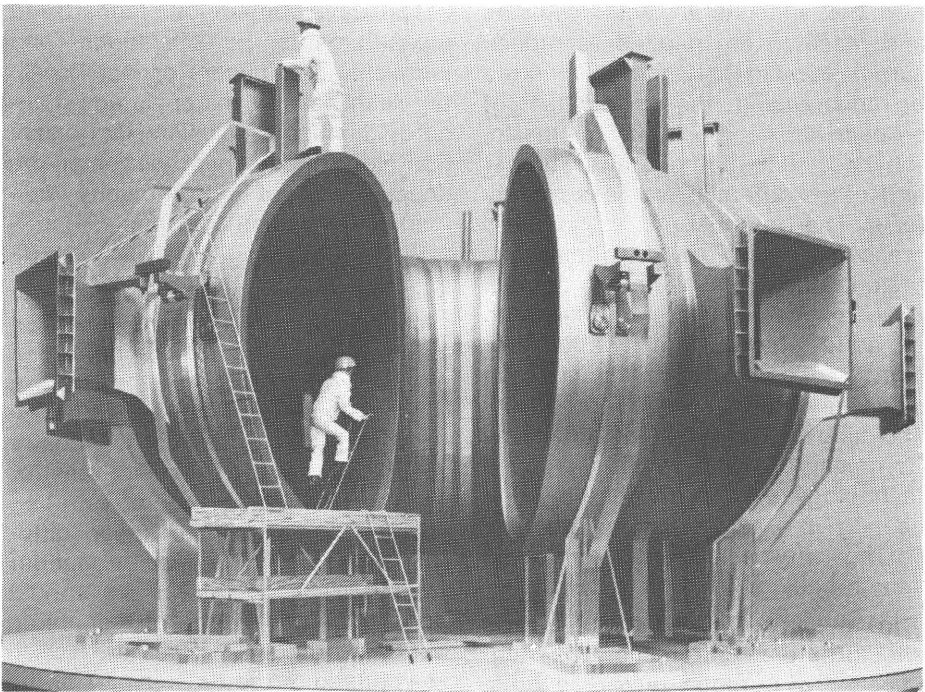
Information processing is one of the new technologies being promoted under the Community's science and research strategy. This German computer system gives an individual read-out on pension rights in seconds, where the calculation previously took about 20 hours

(1) EEC Commission, DG X.

research centre or in national laboratories with coordination and partial financing by the Community. Useful results have been obtained but these efforts do not amount to a genuine European science and research policy.

The share-out of Community funds in 1982—just under ECU 600 million or about 2% of public research spending in the member states—is shown in the last column of the table. It can be seen that Community scientific and technological activity is heavily concentrated on energy problems, such as reactor safety, a long-term project on thermonuclear fusion and new forms of energy and energy saving. There has also been a certain amount of activity in the field of industrial competitiveness, notably in the steel sector and new technology industries, such as computers. But these efforts fall well short of matching up to the importance of the issues involved. Other areas where work is in progress are health and safety and the environment (where 20% of research in the member states is coordinated by the Community). On the other hand, far too little attention has been given to assisting the Third World and promoting better use of raw materials and agriculture. The latter omission is striking, given the large proportion of Community money spent on the common agricultural policy.

The European Commission be-



A scale model of the vacuum chamber for the JET nuclear fusion project. Energy remains a priority of EEC research.

lieves that the scale of the Community research effort and the priorities chosen must be radically reviewed in the light of the problems posed by the 1980s, the needs of European society and the requirements of Community policies.

The Commission has therefore proposed a new scientific and technological strategy to build the foundations for a Community research policy. As a first step, it sought the assistance of numerous experts who

helped to define what the objectives of such a policy should be. These objectives are to be approved and periodically re-examined by governments. The Commission recommends that ECU 3 750 million (at 1982 values) should be devoted to this strategy between 1984 and 1987.

The money would be allocated as shown in the first two columns of the table. If the Commission plan is adopted, 4% of the Community budget would be devoted to research by 1987, compared to 2.6% at present. Community research policy could then make real strides in improving agricultural, scientific and industrial competitiveness and assisting development cooperation. New initiatives could also be taken to achieve specific objectives in the more efficient use of energy and raw materials, and the improvement of living and working conditions.

The main objectives

Promoting competitiveness in agriculture and fisheries: the key agrifoodstuffs sector has to adapt to increasingly difficult operating conditions. Farm incomes have to be maintained in the face of rising energy costs, and the problems posed by over-intensive cultivation, regional disparities and the brake on public subsidies.

Community research spending			
	Million ECU 1984-1987	% of total	
		1984-1987	1982
Promoting agricultural competitiveness (including fish)	130	3.5	1.9
Promoting industrial competitiveness (elimination and reduction of hindrances, conventional industries, new technologies)	1 060	28.2	18.5
Improving the management of raw materials	80	2.1	1.4
Improving the management of energy resources (nuclear fission, controlled thermonuclear fusion, renewable energy, rational use of energy)	1 850	49.4	63.7
Reinforcing development aid	150	4.0	0.7
Improving living and working conditions (safety and health protection, environment)	270	7.2	10.1
	(5% of total credits by end of period))		
Improving scientific and technical efficiency	110	2.9	3.8
Horizontal activities			

In the agricultural sector, studies and research are needed to reduce surpluses by identifying new markets or encouraging the production of crops in short supply, such as maize, tobacco, animal feedstuffs, timber and other potential biomass energy fuels. The potential of less-favoured areas, especially the Mediterranean region, must be exploited to the full. Research can also help farmers to generate energy from waste products, to combat animal and crop diseases and to improve food quality and safety. At the same time, the Community should foster advanced technologies, such as genetic engineering and teledetection, and encourage a wider dissemination of research findings.

In the fisheries sector, efforts should be concentrated on the identification of potential new resources, especially in the open sea. Action could also be taken to improve fishing methods, grading, processing and conservation, notably with the aim of saving energy. There is also scope for work on the animal and human food potential of smaller species of Mediterranean fish, the development of aquaculture and the investigation of the impact of pollution on the food chain.

Promoting industrial competitiveness: if it is to cope with international competition and create and preserve jobs, European industry must face up to the multiple changes brought by the new technologies. Community research work should adopt three main priorities:

The development of standardized measurements, specifications and certification to ensure product quality, cleanliness of materials and standard chemical analysis. Harmonization along these lines will foster the development of a Community-wide market for industrial goods.

The modernization of traditional industries, through developing the application of new technologies such as lasers, new materials and computerized construction methods in a variety of sectors. Techniques developed for other branches of industry could be applied to textiles, steel or transport. Pilot or demonstration projects would help to speed diffusion of research findings throughout industry. The overriding aim should be to widen the range of technologies and products in sectors which still constitute the greater part of the industrial fabric of our society.

The promotion of new technologies, such as information technology (IT), which will be the largest sector in manufacturing industry by 1990. If the Community is to keep up with its competitors, it must coordinate its national research programmes and collaborate in joint efforts to master basic technologies. Attention should be concentrated on microelectronics, especially integrated circuits, software engineering, office automation, computer translation systems and industrial robots. At the same time, the Community should attempt to create an information exchange system, linking collaborating laboratories in all its member states.

Biotechnology provides a further challenge. The investigation of the chemistry of living systems is destined to transform activities in sectors as varied as agrifoodstuffs, fine chemicals, pharmaceuticals, energy and the environment. Research must be encouraged in the key biotechnology sectors in order to harness genes, enzymes and micro-organisms and to improve understanding of cellular and molecular pathology. Pilot and demonstration projects should explore possible uses in the field of biomass energy, waste processing, optimum land use and the improvement of European and tropical agricultural produce. Once again, efforts should be made to establish a network linking the best laboratories, information centres and data banks in the Community.

Improving the management of raw materials: the Community depends on imports for three-quarters—and in some cases the whole—of its non-energy raw materials. Known resources are often concentrated in a small number of countries. To reduce this degree of dependence, efforts must be made to improve techniques for prospecting for minerals at great depth and to develop offshore exploration. Advanced technologies must be developed for the extraction and treatment of minerals from marginal deposits and for the exploitation of lean and complex ores. Efforts are also needed to promote silviculture and to improve paper-making methods. The foreign trade deficit on wood is the Community's second largest, after oil. Finally, research is needed into the recycling of raw materials, particularly into ways of improving the sorting and processing of household and agricultural waste and the recovery of strategic metals.

Improving the management of energy resources: the Community must attempt to shake off the constraints imposed by dependence on oil for about half its energy needs. Community research programmes can no longer concentrate on energy alone but the potential benefits justify the continuation, even the extension, of existing research, development and demonstration activities.

The Community can make an important contribution to vital work on the development of nuclear fission



The Airbus, built by a European consortium, is a successful result of research and development carried out jointly between Community countries and firms

energy, especially the crucial efforts to increase nuclear safety. Community work on reactor safety, including research into light-water and fast-breeder reactors, the management of waste, the decommissioning of nuclear plants and methods for protecting workers and the general public against radiation, have been valuable in their own right. The impartial character of Community work in this field should also exert a positive influence on the nuclear debate.

The Community countries have already pooled their research efforts on thermonuclear fusion into a single programme employing 1 000 research workers, employed mainly on the construction of the powerful JET experimental reactor at Culham in the United Kingdom. The project holds out the long-term promise of abundant energy supplies but research efforts will be long and costly.

The development of renewable energy sources could increase Europe's independence from imported energy and at the same time promote industrial competitiveness and agricultural productivity. It could also provide a new means of aiding developing countries. Research and demonstration projects should be supported in the fields most likely to benefit from development on a Community scale. These include solar energy, biomass, wind and hydro-electric power and geothermal energy.

Finally, the encouragement of a more rational use of energy can also contribute to energy independence, the diversification of resources and the reduction of costs. Energy saving should be encouraged in the home, industry, agriculture and transport. Efforts are required, whilst safeguarding the environment, to promote the optimum use of solid fuels such as coal, possibly through liquefaction into synthetic oils. Progress can also be made in the generation, storage and transport of heat, notably through the establishment of district heating systems. Other projects could include the development of electric-powered vehicles and systems analysis to increase understanding of energy supply and demand.

Reinforcing development aid: Community cooperation with the Third World must be bolstered by further research work in fields which contribute to the development pro-

cess. The Community should boost its scientific and technological aid to the Third World, while taking increasing account of the specific needs and wishes of developing countries and strengthening cooperation with their own research teams. Efforts on a Community scale could help to make the activities of individual member states more effective. They must also seek to ensure that aid is offered at a level of scientific development which is relevant to the recipient state. Scientific cooperation should concentrate first and foremost on agriculture, forestry and fisheries and action to check the spread of deserts. This fits in with the overall objectives of European development policy to promote rural development and the self-sufficiency of food supplies. Other research topics could be population and health (nutritional problems, tropical diseases, demography), geological prospecting, energy and the environment (hydrogeology and climatology).

Improving living and working conditions: joint efforts would help to promote preventive medicine and personal safety, notably protection from environmental risks.

Priorities in the health sector include: improving man's relationship with his living and working environment, through increasing understanding of human adaptability but also through reducing the risk of accidents in the home and dangers from industrial pollution, ionizing radiation and the spread of computers and biotechnology; the development of new techniques of diagnosis and treatment by making use of new technologies in genetic and other fields; increasing knowledge of reproductive problems and the growing and ageing processes to diminish risks associated with particular periods of life and reduce the incidence of handicaps and disablement.

In the environmental sector, the Community should improve its coordination of research into pollution and its effect on those exposed to it. Special attention should be given to three problems: the conservation of natural resources (soils, water, the diversity of animal species); the interaction between man and his environment (the effects of urbanization, industrialization, tourism and inten-

sive agriculture); and the overall understanding of environmental problems (the fundamental processes in ecosystems and climate, information and public awareness, impact assessment techniques).

Improving the efficiency of the Community's scientific and technological potential: It is not possible to programme all scientific work precisely. Flexibility is needed to allow the Community to follow each twist and turn in developments likely to increase Europe's scientific competitiveness. It is often necessary to straighten out bottlenecks, break down barriers between disciplines or encourage the emergence of a new line of research. Possibilities exist in a number of fields, including oceanography, the use of space flights to produce new materials in low-gravity conditions, the development of metallic composites and biomaterials, partially linked with the physics and chemistry of surfaces, information and communication sciences and the science of complex systems (including basic biological research, earth atmosphere interfaces, fine chemicals and optics).

Horizontal activities: as a corollary to all these efforts, the Community must give attention to forecasting studies, the dissemination of information and the exploitation of research, development and demonstration results. At the same time, action is needed to strengthen the legal protection of inventions. The continuous evaluation of research results is also necessary if the Community research policy is to operate efficiently and adapt itself to constantly changing scientific, social and economic needs.

Here, then, are the priorities outlined in the framework programme for the founding 1984-87 period of the new Community scientific and technological strategy. The Commission document lays down detailed and specific objectives, based on an analysis of social and economic needs, the range of existing research activities in the Community and third countries and a variety of sectoral and forecasting studies. The programme should place Community research in a stronger position to face up to the challenges of the 1980s and thus help to solve some of the major problems of our time. o

Books about Europe

Robert JACKSON — **Tradition and reality — Conservative philosophy and European integration** — The European Democratic Group, 32 Smith Square, London S.W.1 — 50 pp. — £1 — 1982.

The author of this book, which has come out today, is well known to our readers. A member of the European Parliament, currently rapporteur for the budget, he was previously in Christopher Soames' cabinet and with the Economic and Social Committee. He therefore has thorough knowledge of the Community phenomenon as it works in practice as well as in its political aspirations. And that is what constitutes the interest of the book, to which we will no doubt return because it raises one of the basic themes of the European problematic, namely, the relationship between the Community and national sovereignty. It is true that this problem is viewed from the particular standpoint of the British Conservative Party, of which it has been said—as Lord Hailsham recalls in his preface—that it is "national or nothing". It is obvious that for the Tory philosophy which is built upon the premisses of tradition, organization, political scepticism and realism, a Community is acceptable without difficulty for as long as it is based in the main on inter-governmental cooperation. But, says Jackson, it is something else too. And is not the Conservative Party "something else" than traditional Tory politics? Jackson attempts to reply to this question and others. His book provides extremely stimulating reading.

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P. MAILLET — **L'Europe à la recherche de son avenir industriel** (Europe in search of its industrial future) — Collection Europe — Editions Labor-Nathan, 347, rue Royale, 1030 Brussels — 208 pages — Bfrs 495 — 1983

Around 41 % of GNP, 39 % of total employment and 90 % of exports: these are the vital statistics of industry in the European Community. They

put the European Community and most of its member states among the front-runners in world industry. Yet European industry has two fundamental weaknesses—the production of basic raw materials and the various sectors of advanced technology.

What can and what should the individual nations and the Community as a whole do? These are the basic issues discussed in this book, which both provides a summary and suggests answers.

As far as the Europeans are concerned, the choice is between adopting a passive attitude, bowing their heads and grumblingly submitting to the harmful effects of trends directed mainly by other people, or adopting a voluntarist attitude aimed at controlling both the direction and the rate of the changes. This choice should be simple.

Pierre Maillet is a scientist who began his career as senior lecturer at the econometrics laboratory at the Paris polytechnic (1950-54). He then went on to the department of economic and financial studies at the French planning commission (1954-60). After these 10 years in the French civil service, Pierre Maillet joined the staff of the European Communities, where, between 1960 and 1973, he was head of economic studies at the European Coal and Steel Community, head of scientific and technological policy at the Commission and finally head of the directorate-general for the budget. Mr Maillet qualified in engineering at the Paris polytechnic and in mining engineering at the Paris school of mining. He also holds a master's degree in law and is a keen researcher. In the course of his career, he has also taught at the College of Europe in Bruges and at the University of Namur in Belgium.

In October 1973, he opted for a university career once and for all and is now associate professor in economics at the University of Lille 1 (where he is director of the European and International Research Centre)

and at the Universities of Paris I and II.

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Maurice TORRELLI — **Le médecin et les droits de l'homme** (Human rights and the doctor) — Berger-Levrault, 299 bvd Saint Germain, 75007, Paris — 450 pages — 1983

There is much public concern about progress in medicine. The doctor, a magician who, with genetic manipulation and modern techniques of fertilization, is creating a new man, holds the key to life more than ever he did before. And charters of patients' rights are burgeoning as a result.

People and nations are today claiming their right to health and the WHO has promised "health for all by the year 2000". Doctors can no longer be content with healing. They have to be social development agents too.

The doctors also are deeply concerned. They have remained the soldiers of everyday fortune and, increasingly, society is calling their responsibility into question in the name of new values—abortion and euthanasia, for example. In some extreme cases, they are even forced by the state to take part in torture.

Yet, since 1945, there has been a vast international campaign to promote and protect human rights so as to free man from his fears and protect him from the state, that potentially most effective depriver of rights. The doctor holds an important position in the community and cannot ignore these demands. UNESCO and the Council of Europe have been recommending for some years now that human rights be taught in medical schools and it was at UNESCO's request that this work, based on a dialogue between a lawyer and a doctor, was written. Both consider the doctor's conscience must be the arbiter of the law, as there can be no medicine unless the doctor is free to act. But if the doctor were to forget the demands of conscience, then the law would be fully entitled to force him to respect human rights.

Maurice Torrelli is a doctor of law and holds a higher diploma in political science. He is currently professor at the faculty of law at the University of Lille and at the Institut du Droit de la Paix et du Développement in Nice.

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EUROPEAN DOCUMENTATION — The Court of Justice of the European Communities — Office for Official Publications of the European Communities — 57 pages — 1983.

The founding fathers of the Community did more than simply set up a number of institutions; they also laid the foundations of a legal union, based on a new, autonomous and uniform body of law transcending national law and binding in its entirety on all the EEC member states.

It was then necessary to make sure that this common body of law was not interpreted and applied in many ways and that it kept its Community character; so the Court of Justice of the European Communities was born.

One of the Community institutions, its main task is to ensure that in the interpretation and application of the treaties establishing the European Communities the law is observed.

The member states, the institutions and the man in the street are all entitled to appeal to the Court, which by its multiplicity of rulings has exercised direct influence on the implementation of Community policies and is making an ever-increasing contribution to the European cause.

As the Court sees it, Community law is law with a specific objective—creator, protector and integrator—helping to shape the pattern of everyday life.

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IDS/ODI — EEC and the Third World: a survey, 3. The Atlantic rift — Edited by Christopher Stevens: Hodder & Stoughton in association with the Overseas Development Institute, London and the Institute of Development Studies, Sussex. 242 pages, £6.95

The current disputes between Europe and the USA over subsidized agricultural exports to the Third

World and over the World Bank are symptomatic of a continuing tension between the Atlantic partners over North-South issues. This survey, just published in London, considers this rift and questions whether the EEC member states are united in their opposition to US policies, whether such divisions exist concern fundamental issues or are merely symbolic and whether the tensions are likely to increase or diminish.

Its general conclusion is that the Atlantic rift is real and may grow, even though on many issues the apparent differences of approach are only a superficial gloss on an underlying consensus. Despite its self-portrait as the Third World champion, it argues that the EEC has not often been markedly more positive than the USA on North-South economic relations, and differences within Europe have often been as great as those between the EEC and the USA. The real source of the Atlantic rift is political and strategic, with the US viewing its relations with the Third World within an East-West dimension, based on bilateral diplomacy and military force, in contrast to the EEC's approach which is founded upon economic initiatives, multilateral diplomacy and withdrawal from regional conflicts.

In this book three distinguished statesmen from both sides of the Atlantic agree that too much attention is given to East-West conflict, and that Europe has a key role to play in reversing this tendency.

Willy Brandt urges Europe to take the lead in North-South issues since it is "seen by many as the only possible hope and the only political power potentially able to fill the leadership gap". From a US perspective, Congressman Lee H. Hamilton adopts a similar position and points to a growing divergence between the policies pursued by the USA and some European states, which is largely due to the growing US preoccupation with East-West issues. He calls for the USA and EEC to increase their coordination, a view which is echoed by Thorvald Stoltenberg of Norway, although he recognizes the danger that this may squeeze other countries out of decision-making.

All agree that Europe's basic interests in the Third World are strategic and economic: as Brandt puts it, Europe has "the biggest political interest in cooperation with the Third World". Europe's dependence on the Third World for strategic raw materials (other than oil) is 80%; the US figure is only 15%. Also, some 40% of EEC trade is with the Third World and, as Dr Yves Berthelot points out in a chapter on French policy, the Third World is the only region with which France has a surplus on its trade in manufactured goods.

Divisions within the 10 member states and between the EEC and USA have been very apparent recently in the international arena. The survey analyses recent negotiations on export credit, on commodities, and in the United Nations. The negotiations for the Law of the Sea Convention, for example, saw the EEC countries split.

The split between the EEC and the USA has been more clear cut in their approach to regional problems, three of which are analysed in the survey: southern Africa, the Caribbean Basin and the Middle East.

The survey also discusses trade relations between the EEC and the African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) signatories of the Lomé Convention and questions whether such restrictive regional approaches in North-South relations are tenable.

All in all, the authors believe the Lomé Convention has been a disappointment.

Against this background the book assesses the EEC's new memorandum of development policy as a guide to future action.

The US global approach to international relations, viewed within an East-West dimension, and based on military force and bilateral diplomacy is bound to conflict in some areas with the EEC's more regional approach which is founded upon economic initiatives, multilateral diplomacy and withdrawal from regional conflicts. But if the EEC is to take the lead in international fora, as Willy Brandt suggests, then the member states must get their act together and project a united front. o

Urban development and land use



Town planning in the ACP countries has amounted for a long time to putting up sets of symbolic buildings, modelled on the "most beautiful" capitals in the world, in order to make the developing countries look like modern states; urban growth has been put aside for architecture and the planners have not had much to do with it, while the states themselves have not managed to integrate it into their nascent land-use policies. The preparation and organization of living space should precede any urban development. The rampant spread of shanty-towns and squatter settlements in the ACP countries and the Third World in general is a very real threat to any economic and social development policy.

This "dossier" presents the problem of the concentration of population, not through a comparison of towns that are well-built or otherwise but by analysing the urban phenomenon and its economic consequences, social effects (too much discrimination among classes, particularly as regards housing, health and education, resulting in insecurity) and political impact (unemployment and high degree of sensitivity to certain destabilizing ideas).

Hence, the reader who is in any way interested in this urban phenomenon will find three series of articles in this dossier—the first describing the development process of towns in the ACP countries and the concepts that prevailed there shortly after independence in the 1960s, the second setting out the problems and broad trends of solutions suggested

throughout the world. Attempts to put land to more rational use must be accompanied by an effort on the part of the state to devolve responsibility for housing and capital development onto local authorities, while providing them with adequate means—hence the need for reform in the field of financing. Bernard Granotier, author of *Planète des bidonvilles* (Slum Planet), calls for a break with imported town planning and "the motivation of the people concerned" to get them to participate in the building of their own homes. Lastly, a third series of articles describes the small-time occupations of the inhabitants and their administrative difficulties, the degree of education—or rather the lack of it—of the children in shanty-towns, and the problem of making a policy of self-sufficiency in food work in conditions of uncontrolled urban growth.

The Community's action in the field of town planning has been more concerned thus far with developing the towns (water supply, streets, schools, hospitals, etc.) than with organizing the living space and building housing.

The specialists who have contributed to this dossier consider that the urban phenomenon is irreversible. But, according to Paul Delouvrier, those holding political and economic power will have failed miserably, from both the technical and political viewpoints, if they simply "give up" and make no attempt to bring some organization into urban growth and control it.

Towns of the Third World

by J. P. DIEHL (*)

An extra hundred thousand people appear in the towns of the Third World every day. Half of them are born there. The others come in from the country and small villages, in search of work or simply anxious to escape from their abject poverty.

The full consequences of this massive human coalescence have yet to be measured. There will soon be tens of millions of people living in Mexico, Sao Paulo, Bombay and Cairo; we also know that half the population of Asia and Latin America live in towns, and that the Africans are following suit. We know that over the next 30 years we will have to build as many houses as have been put up in the whole history of mankind; to double water supplies; to build vast drainage and transport systems and to take over 100 000 ha of land every year. But this is nothing beside the cultural shock to traditional rural societies which, in just one generation, have to adopt what industrial societies took 200 years to evolve.

There has been a marked "urban preference" in the countries of the West for more than a century now. The countryside has gradually been cut up and organized with this in mind and the peasant has had to become a producer like all the rest. The rites and customs of harvesting and sowing have fallen by the wayside. The change has been a violent one which has made many people unhappy. However, the mass production of consumer goods has brought about an undeniable increase in the standard of living of a population that has changed little. Social differences today are largely masked by an apparent uniformity of consumption and general access to many public services.

But there is nothing of this in the Third World. There is demographic pressure from within and economic pressure from without, and both are unavoidable. Cuts in the birth rate by no means offset the decline in the death rate and the figure is often more than 3 % p.a. The countries that have tried economic autarky are now finding it difficult to overcome the political isolation forced upon them. The dominant model of society is no longer rooted in the rural world and the "urban preference" is looking like a simple transplant of the industrial world. There is twofold urbanization — one, of a monumental kind, is imported and the other, of a spontaneous, *de facto* kind, is the extension of the shattered countryside.

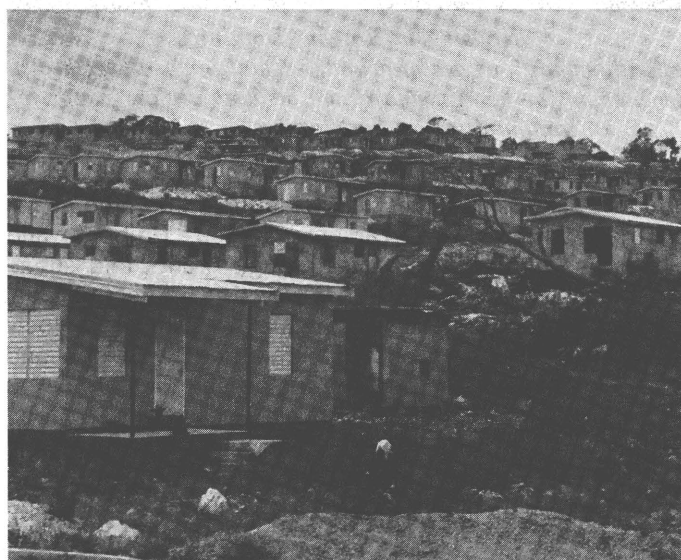
In Africa, it is the countryside that has always been the melting-pot for social cohesion. Can this be continued in these outward-looking metropolises, where social divisions are so impudently built into the scheme of things?

(*) The author, an economist, is director of studies at the Société d'Etudes pour le Développement Economique et Social (SEDES), 15, Rue Bleue, 75009 Paris (France).

Colonialism and the towns

The urban phenomenon is the basis of human civilization. It was the concentration in the cities of the Indus, the Tigris and the Nile that led man to think in terms of the organization of space. In the 16th century, Paris, London and Vienna were no more important socially or culturally speaking than Peking, Tokyo or Cairo because, at that stage, the Western world had not stamped its economic order on the planet.

The industrial revolution, which took over from two centuries of colonialization of ports and estates, is primarily a general extension of the singular system of production (mechanization, division of labour and absolute control of the capital circuits) that was tested in Europe. It covers the whole world—Latin America, which was carved up back in 1500 so its land and its minerals could be exploited; Asia, where China resists but India has seen its powerful textile industry crushed by British goods; and, lastly Africa.



"The precarious conditions in which most people live"

All the towns of the Third World, with the possible exception of those in China and Japan, have been shaped by colonialism and its industrial and liberal fortunes. The past has gone or only lives on in the spectacular shape of palaces, forts, temples and museums. There are exceptions, of course, in the bazaars of the Moslem towns where the opposition took both refuge and control over traditional trade. Fez, Algiers, Cairo and Teheran have kept whole districts where the old network of social relations lives on. Kabul, Sanaa and many towns in Yemen have only recently abandoned feudalism. And Nepal is a singular case of a thousand-year-old urban civilization which has stayed intact on the fringes of a subjected India.

There is none of this in sub-Saharan Africa. Before military colonization, not 100 years ago, the towns were nothing more than warehouses and stop-overs on the gold, ivory, spice and slave trails. Some of them were outposts of Bordeaux, Liverpool and Bombay. In some rare cases, they had more than 10 or 20 thousand inhabitants. Some, Mombasa or Harare, for example, have



Housing in Roseau, Dominica

"Living conditions are of primary social importance; health depends on the habitat and it can be a stabilizing factor for communities on the margins of society"

evolved with the new economic framework, but others are now slumbering forever outside the modern commercial networks. Ouidda, Tadjoura, Kiloua, Timbuctu and Ghadames now only survive through grants and subsidies. The new places served as a basis for direct colonial exports and as posts in the unequal trade between local raw materials and goods manufactured in Europe and elsewhere. They have become the urban monsters called Kinshasa, Lagos, Abidjan, Douala, Dakar and Nairobi. Before independence, these towns had direct economic functions—access to ports, railways and financial circuits—they had administrative functions and they housed the European administrators and dealers. The unavoidable corollary of all this was that Africans lived there in much more primitive conditions. The coherence of the colonial model left its stamp on their land so successfully that it is still there today.

In Latin America, the urbanism that began in 1500 was modelled on that of the towns of the Iberian peninsula (there was an orthogonal system, there were public buildings and churches identical to those in Lisbon or Seville and there were autonomous districts under the control of landed families or military chiefs). It could look for support to an economic and ideological apparatus that was a carbon copy of the one in the metropolis (latifundianism, communalism and catholicism). France, the United Kingdom, Belgium and Italy had neither the time, the means nor the desire to do the same in Africa and, with the exception of Algeria and South Africa, the colonies on this continent were not filled with people from the metropolis. Town planners got clear directions. The European town had to be by the port, preferably on high ground, and it had to be easy to defend. The warehouses, sheds, services and industries went along the river and the native town was kept apart, sometimes on lower land, as in Djibouti and Dakar. It was near the port,

the station and the workshops and was certainly never part of the European settlement. It was separated by a bank and a cordon of utility buildings (the hospital, the prison, the barracks and so on). These buildings were arranged differently in different towns, but the difference was never such that they were unidentifiable. Social and racial segregation was apparent to every visitor. In independence, 30 countries found their heritage of basic urban structures to be exactly like those of the colonial power.

In Asia, where urban concentration is nothing new, colonization altered the previous situation; but it did not do away with the particular relations of the country, the kingdom or the sultanate. This was because the population was so large and difficult to regiment, because of the solid rural community traditions shaped during work on hydraulic schemes, the attendant organization and the strength of Chinese, Malayan and Indian trade and navigation. Colonial trade is, for the dyed-in-the-wool bourgeois already master of relations between town and country as of international dealing, an opportunity to boost his power—hence those ant-hill towns run by an active, collaborating local power that the colonials in fact run from their residential quarters 10, 20 or even 100 km away, as happened in Bandoeng, in Aden and in Delhi. And hence two original state-towns, those outposts of the Chinese economy, Singapore and Hong Kong.

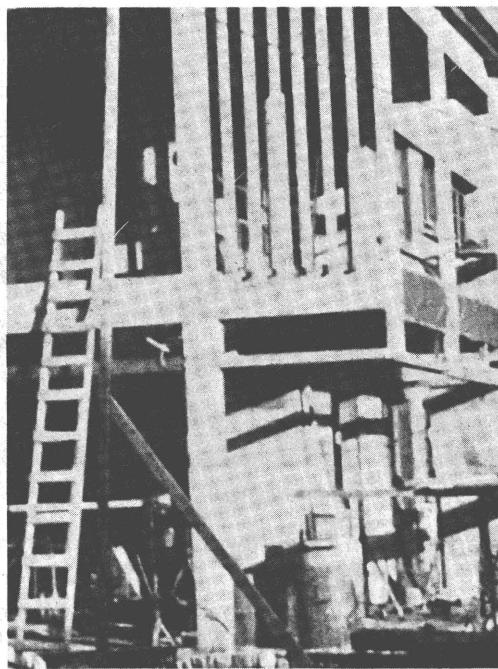
Two-speed urbanization?

The world will be urban or it will not be at all. Only 100 million people are needed to exploit the land's resources. The rest have to be put to work elsewhere, producing the goods and services everybody wants.

This is the urban problem of the end of the 20th century. The towns ought to have been workshops turning out general development... but those of the Third World have all too often become rallying points for shattered economies.

Yet authorities the world over have wanted to make their cities, and their capitals in particular, the showpieces of their proclamations and their programmes. The new ruling class has moved into the old European town. When there have been plenty of funds from oil or mining resources, prestige operations have been run. Wide openings, luxury flats, high-class housing estates have appeared and equipment has been brought in direct from the industrialized countries, often on the occasion of a diplomatic summit or a cultural or sporting event. When this is all that is done, the effect is disastrous, as there is a tremendous contrast between the grandiose stretches of concrete and asphalt and the precarious conditions in which most people live. In most cases social programmes have been undertaken at the same time; only, compared to the tremendous needs, the means provided are always inadequate. Official building is a long way behind spontaneous settlement.

This is no reason for condemning onerous installations if they provide structure and performance. Mexico City should not regret its underground any more than Paris should. And young nations need places for their civil servants to work and their students to learn efficiently when the climate is hard. What is being held up to question is



View of Paramaribo, Suriname (above left) and a house under construction in Douala, Cameroon.

"Basic urban structures in the strict image of colonial relations"

the suitability of the resources to the needs—something that has only been (partially) solved in Europe because the population is steady.

Favelas, campallas, bidonvilles and shanty-towns

No one talked of shanty-towns 30 years ago. But then books and films came out (*) and Poto-poto and the favelas of Rio became known, as did the colonias of Mexico City. And all of a sudden the immensity of the phenomenon became clear. These zones of poverty were not temporary marginal manifestations of bad organization, but the focal symptom of rapid exogenous urbanization.

The urban population of Mexico increased by about 15 million—the size of the total population in 1921—between 1970 and 1980. And the second biggest town in the country, Ciudad Netzahualcoyotl, has three million, a huge shanty-town tacked to the capital. Kinshasa and Lagos grow by about 8% p.a., doubling in nine years. And in some parts of Cairo there are as many as 250 000 people to the square kilometre.

At the Vancouver conference in 1976, it was said that 1 000 million people had no roof worthy of the name over their heads and that most of them lived in the towns.

The first characteristic of their housing is that it is illegal. As far as the state is concerned, a plot that is not connected to the public services cannot be built on. As far as the private sector is concerned, it can go to the highest bidder. The thousands of immigrants have nothing to offer but the strength of their arms. In Honduras, they occupy, determinedly and in order of arrival, the rural properties that stretch right into the capital. In Djibouti, they have been waiting 30 years for permission to put up permanent houses. In Hong Kong, they plunge

into the insecurity of the slums in the north of the colony.

They live on top of one another. Public services only reach them on the rebound. Their dustbins are not emptied. Drinking water is not always there. Rain and waste water stagnates. Their children are poor school attenders. Dispensaries are rare and postal services non-existent. And the latest arrival goes to the edge of the edge, sometimes straight on to the rubbish tip.

Does he build a house? Yes, if he gets permission. If not, he will knock up a hut or rent a site or a courtyard from someone better off than he. Sometimes these spontaneous districts create their own internal organization to help them survive and they stand up to the central authorities, which they accuse of negligence. In Caracas, the police no longer patrol the barrios of Petaré. They would be thrown out if they did. And the same goes for Kingston and Manila.

The shanty-towns are always developing. Their populations are being constantly renewed. Sometimes a singular piece of development will make a particular area desirable all of a sudden. And sometimes proper rehabilitation is undertaken—standard shells are put up, with the help of technicians, on properly prepared sites. But in this case, many of the old occupants are unfortunately expelled to make way for clients who are reckoned to be more solvent by the authorities or the speculators. Which of us has not come across something of this sort?

It is clear today that this policy of improving existing facilities should be preferred to the policy of knocking things down and building afresh. This latter is, ultimately, only suitable for the stable middle classes who are in a better financial position. In Djakarta, the three million people who live in the Kampung now have latrines, a water point for every 20 families and dispensaries. In Kenya, a number of modest operations are under way on the outskirts of Nairobi. A hundred sites have been

(*) Jean Rouch, Oscar Lewis, Marcel Camus, Luis Buñuel, Satyajit Ray, etc.



The need for housing, the urge for modernity: in Djibouti (left) and in Abidjan, Ivory Coast

started up in Calcutta, as in Managua, in Ouagadougou and in Dar es Salaam.

Yet all this is not enough to meet the needs. The shortage of drained building plots in the Third World is increasing by the minute. And there is a shortage of land, water is scarce and the distance of the sources of supply makes transport difficult. These towns, spreading on the ground itself, are impossible to manage.

The limitations of the dialogue on urbanism

The towns of the North have stabilized, while those of the South will go on expanding. Will the wealth of the North go on expanding too, and the wealth of the South go on stagnating? The results would be dramatic—and for the city-dwellers of the South first and foremost! No town planning would be possible in conditions of this kind.

The problem we are faced with is primarily a worldwide economic problem. The Mexican government never hoped it would have 30 million people living in the capital by the year 2000. Yet that is what is going to happen and it will be powerless to do anything about it. When a country like Tanzania commits all it has to an anti-city drive so as to stem the move to the towns, it is flying in the face of world trends and it is half doomed to failure because of it. Wanting to solve the problem of our crowded towns without doing anything about the iron law of the world market is taking a long shot. The countries which are accentuating the openness of the market are seeing their possibilities of controlling urban development wane. In a period of expansion, they can at best carry out one or two major projects and implement a housing policy for their customers. But if stagnation occurs, the town will still go on expanding. And the urban social basis of power shrinks, with what are sometimes dramatic results.

He who talks of the world market means international trade in ore, in wheat, in textiles, in machinery and in oil, but he does not mean housing or urban land or social services. Towns are not goods, so it should be possible to create them away from business circles. Towns cannot be decreed. They are built, haphazardly, by thousands and millions of people, each of whom is part of his own personal economic network. The state's role in this

production is to ensure the best possible utilization of resources for the good of all—which should logically lead it to quash speculative practices (land rents, house rents, etc.), encourage as decentralized as possible a building industry, promote the use of local materials that generate national added value and make its own programmes as good as possible, setting up infrastructure, transport, health and education services. And it is also the state's job to get any financial support from the international community.

Above all, it is its job to reconcile the town as it is with the town as it should be. There is no point in telling the poor about the merits of autoconsumption if you are simultaneously giving the comfortably off large rebates on their building loans. There is no point in complaining about the shortage of proper plots for new estates and authorizing the continuation of vast inherited properties. It is out of the question to defend the necessary job creation in the building industry, the driving force, yet to go on awarding large numbers of remunerative public contracts to big foreign firms at the same time. It is wrong to suggest that the poor buy houses yet to allow the only components on the market to be washbasins from France and doors made in Sweden.

An international economic problem

The countries of the North have every interest in the towns of the South throwing off the yoke of poverty. Most poor people are looking for work, so why not give it to them?

The world economy is affected when its workers, wherever they may be, are not working. If the present crisis has put 25 million workers on the dole queue in the OECD countries, it has hit three times as many in the countries of the South. The towns where they congregate should not be dying towns. International solidarity is primarily a question of mutual interest and it must be brought into play to achieve a redeployment of activity that is in the interests of us all in North and South alike, beginning with the production of built-up areas in the Third World, with standards, methods and means that are in line with their own needs and specific forms of organization rather than any imported systems.

Failing this, two-speed urbanization will be with us for some time to come. ○ J.P.D.

Tradition and modernity in ACP housing

by Jean BERGEROT (*)

A more suitable title for this article would perhaps be "tradition versus modernity"; in the ACP housing sector, confrontation rather than synthesis of styles has been the order of the day. Is there really no middle way between traditional village skills and the glitter of imported high technology?

In the great inter-tropical belt of the developing world, choice depends on an intelligent interpretation of a number of limiting factors: physical (climate and building materials); social (the individual's position in the group, land rights, inheritance customs); and religion (relations with the invisible). The margin of individual initiative in housing styles has always been very narrow. But the modern economy, essentially monetary, dislocates existing structures and so changes life-styles. Architecture is one of its most obvious expressions, literally giving concrete form to particular ways of life.



Modern, or modernized materials can improve the comfort and durability of traditional houses such as these in the Ivory Coast

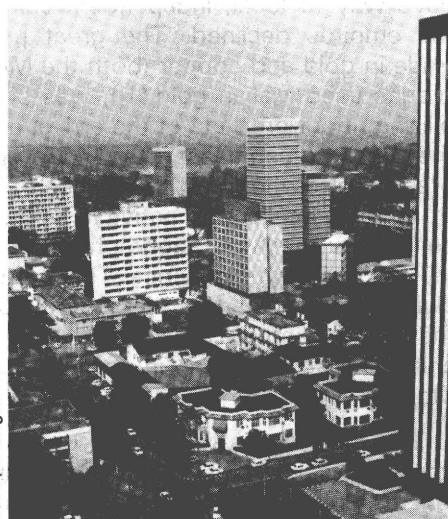
The pre-colonial era

Archaeology has confirmed the earliest travellers' observations of the organic pattern of human settlement, the larger towns providing a nucleus for the scatter or cluster of villages in the surrounding countryside. The pattern would vary with the fertility of the local soil, the distances involved and how many of the potential range of urban functions—political, religious, cultural, military and commercial—a particular town fulfilled. In those days the two levels of social and economic community, town and village, existed in a self-sustaining equilibrium. The

balance could be disrupted by violence—Genghis Khan, for instance, rased Bamyan in Afghanistan to the ground in 1777—or natural disaster, such as the virtual destruction by fire of Benin in Nigeria in 1897. But whatever happened, man's propensity to rebuild his dwellings with the resources to hand remained constant.

The towns. Structurally, towns developed along the same lines throughout history, with princely palaces, grand temples and civic buildings, fine houses for the nobles' clientele, the stewards or rich merchants, the wards or streets where the various trades congregate—weavers, blacksmiths, tanners, potters—the huddled lodgings of the poor strung out along narrow lanes; no frontage on the main street for them. This could just as well be the description of a mediaeval European town.

Because the town is the seat of power and its expression, the centre for trade and the repository of learning, it calls forth sophisticated technical prowess in the art of building. With the resources of manpower that can be mobilized by force or faith, great and daring schemes become possible. The durability of stone ensures that monuments will stand through the centuries to bear witness to the greatness of empires: the ziggurats of Babylon, the cyclopean pyramids of Aztec or Pharaoh, Dravi-



The Plateau, a modern residential district in the Ivory Coast capital, Abidjan, represented progress—does it still for its growing population?

dian temples such as Minakshi in Madurai, with its 10-storey "gopuram" or portico.

However starkly its elements are contrasted, the town forms one world within its strong walls, pierced by the fortified gates which regulate relations with the wider world beyond.

A constant expression of such a contained community is found in Islamic civilization, whose monotheistic ideal sweeps from the shores of the Atlantic to the Sunda Islands. Its monumental architecture makes sophisticated play with domes, pendentives and serried columns to vault spaces big enough to hold the whole community of the faithful. The main concern of its domestic architec-

(*) Director of studies at SEDES (Sociétés d'Études pour le Développement Économique et Sociale), 15 rue Bleue, F-75009 Paris.

ture in the towns, on the other hand, is to shelter family life from the outsider's gaze.

In Moslem towns the facades are stark, windows are few and concealed behind latticed balconies. In the white lanes of Maghreb medinas, the dwellings coalesce to form an unbroken wall. Defying the desert, the expression of communal solidarity takes on monolithic form, exemplified at the oasis of Ghadamès in the Sahara. Veritable wells of light are sunk through three mud-built storeys to tame the relentless sun and allow only the cool, sweet half-light to filter through to the white-washed alleys inside. In mountain areas, towns carry on the most venerable architectural traditions, with the underlying stone structure rendered in ochreous clay so that it seems an emanation of the earth itself. In Yemen are such sumptuous five-storey houses, with their double rows of windows; in Morocco the imposing kasbah fortresses of the High Atlas; in a different topographical context, in a series of stepped verticals, Kabul huddles at the feet of the Hindu Kush and the town appears as a pattern of shadow or snow-covered terraces overlooking the valley.

The African world is linked to history via its succession of great empires—Ghana, Mali, the Songhai empire of Gao, the Mossi and Haoussa kingdoms, the Yoruba cities, the kingdom of Benin. Within the continental vastness of sub-Saharan Africa a great unifying civilization gave way to local, independent cultures. But gradually, the empires declined. The great prosperity based on trade in gold and copper (both the Moslem and Christian worlds used Malian gold (1)), was shaken by the destabilizing effect on trade of the arrival of the Portuguese on the West African coast after 1450. Timbuctu retained its prestige after the fall of the empire of Mali, but this forum of intense intellectual activity, so admired in the 14th century by the Arab geographer and historian Ibn Battuta, was to lose its influence. There remain, of this African civilization that marked the symbols of North and South, the outstanding accomplishments of Sudanese mud architecture, exemplified in the mosques at Djenné and Mopti.

The villages. After the fall of the great empires and the displacement of trade to the European settlements on the coast, life in Africa tended to sink back to the level of the village community—often mere hamlets, consisting of only a few houses. This dismembered world, constantly bled by the slave trade (2), was ripe for the colonial era.

The village is the lowest common denominator of African, Caribbean and Pacific societies.

In the pre-colonial era, and indeed for long afterwards, the village was traditionally self-sufficient. Only a few items were traded with the outside world. Man, the family, kin and ancestors were in contact with the physical world and the hidden forces governing it. Dwellings were made directly from natural materials available in the local environment, and the range of these was wide. Trees

(1) When Mansa Mousa went on a pilgrimage to Mecca in 1324, he distributed so much gold along the way that the price of gold on the Cairo market dropped like a stone and, 12 years later, Ibn Fadl Allah Al'Omari wrote that gold had still not attained its previous price.

(2) Some 15 million slaves over five centuries, according to conservative estimates.

provided trunks, poles and planks, bark (Baobab) and leaves (palmyra), and palms their fronds and fibres (date palms, rafia, coconut palms, pandanus); the savannah and lakes provided grasses and reeds for weaving into panels and straw for thatch or walls. Mud was used more or less universally, alone or mixed with straw, to make walls of wattle and daub or simple dried mud (e.g. by the Lobis); in the highland villages of Madagascar, blocks of laterite or basalt were also used, giving first-class insulation.

The dispersal of these small village communities over the immensity of continents or seas meant that most of them remained within their own closed world. Their economic balance or mere survival were the result of long experience, forging strong links with the past; hence a resistance to change. This social and cultural isolation or near isolation led to the development of quite localized building styles. In this context, indeed, one could speak of "ecological niches" (3). Environmental circumstances produced widely diverse approaches to the house. In addition, the detached rural house offers



SEDES/J. Bergerot

The demand for good housing is growing throughout the ACP countries, while the means of supplying it are diminishing. Yet bricks and clay are local materials used in Madagascar to build a modern style of sorts

greater scope for variations in building technique than the urban "terrace". With the advent of the colonial era, some 7 000 years of human endeavour came face to face with another world—the world of industrial development, setting out to extend its sphere of influence. Concluding our rapid survey of the pre-colonial age, we must stress the great richness of this heritage, bearing witness to the ingenuity and adaptability of human communities unknown to "history" simply because they left no monuments. The need to come to terms with nature was a constant in these traditional communities; the natural order was to be interfered with except in special circumstances, and in accordance with the correct conciliatory procedures. The colonisers were to bring with them a radically opposed philosophy: the taming and harnessing of nature by means of a technical mastery, which was to transform the world—and upset the internal balance (4).

(3) Often two different ethnic groups living close by one another in a given environment have more similar building styles than two sections of the same tribe that have settled in different climatic areas.

(4) The coloniser's daring, his ability to upset the natural order with impunity, explains the dominance which some solitary Europeans were able to exercise over local people.

There are still parts of the world today where traditional dwellings reflect the genius of these anonymous builders. It is vital that this scattered knowledge be collected and collated before it is too late.

The colonial era

Whatever the arguments put forward for taking over a country, or the relative weight of the trade, missionary and administrative considerations, the colonial powers set about establishing themselves in the same systematic way, securing their communications with home and reinforcing their coastal trading posts, from where they could strike into the interior. With their supply lines established, they had a base from which the first "expatriates", government or company agents, could later tackle the hinterland.

Like conquerors throughout history, the colonialists then set about building towns, their stake in the future.

Whether a town existed already (as in Egypt or the Maghreb) or was built from scratch for some specific purpose, like Djibouti and Abidjan (5), subsequently "precipitating" the settlement of local populations, the European town was designed and built as an independent entity. The only contacts with the local population were for the purposes of trade, or public or domestic service. There resulted a clearly defined division of the settlement into the "European" town and the "native" quarter with the barracks between as a filter or barricade. Once this order was established, certain consequences emerged.

The native townships remained unchanged for decades, administered by trusted local notables. The colonial powers intervened as little as possible, except to maintain health (clinics) or law and order (police stations); this was facilitated by laying out the roads at right angles where there were no existing stone buildings, e.g. medinas, in the way.

The layout of the European town varied according to the topography but it was always organized along the same lines, centred on the symbols of power—the governor's palace, the church, the court, the school and the related technical and administrative services. The residential areas were laid out to suit the prevailing winds, and housing density was low, with spacious villas in large gardens.

The foreign powers made profound changes to the local economic system and allocated the available space in a highly unequal manner, but they drew on indigenous building styles, for obvious reasons. The climate was one: to cope with the heat, rooms were high ceilinged with fans to create a draught; facades were protected behind galleries or verandahs, which provide a zone of shade and cool air. There were technical considerations, too: the desirability of using local materials—stone, brick, sometimes coral, with lime as a bonding or facing agent. Native labour came cheap, so size was no problem. Thus there developed a colonial architecture, func-

tional, pleasing and generally of uniform three storeys, eminently suited to a growing town (6).

However, since the colony by definition had its roots in the metropolitan power, the seat of progress, this type of conservative but elegant architecture was superseded, and the freighters arrived with new materials from manufacturers in search of boundless colonial markets.

First, iron, which had enabled 19th century industrial society to build its new temples—factories, stations, department stores and technical marvels such as the Eiffel Tower. Iron made it possible to span great spaces with a minimum of intermediary load-bearing structures. But it was above all a laminate, corrugated iron, which was to transform traditional architecture so spectacularly. It was extremely easy to use (7)—in Europe it was employed for the humblest of buildings—and it spread to the four corners of the Third World.

Missionaries were among the agents of its great and still growing success, taking corrugated iron into the heart of Africa, the highlands of Madagascar, the plantations of the Caribbean and the archipelagos of the Pacific to enclose the large areas they needed for their churches, or to assemble the faithful.

Another material that was to cross the oceans in the holds of ships was cement. It provided bonding and facing that were better able to resist weathering and also served to make another mass-produced material, concrete blocks. Later, when iron reinforcing bars were introduced, architecture was released from the constraints of traditional materials, since the reinforced concrete could be moulded and only hardened with time. Given skilled technicians able to calculate material properties and stress and stress resistance, the sky was the limit. Since the new construction method was both skill- and capital-intensive, however, it merely widened the gap between the two communities as far as access to housing was concerned. Moreover, ideology of colonialism meant that the dominant power regarded the "native's" material poverty as natural. The colonizers had imported their own order and operated it for their own convenience. Provided the natives were quiescent, they could live as they liked. The local population was part of the scenery, a necessary reservoir of labour, but should not be allowed to grow out of hand, as poverty was only a source of problems. Hence the deliberate restrictions on the development of the native quarters. Land, of course, was also interesting to speculators, and big companies and private individuals were not slow to profit; there was no question of leaving the land to the poor. All this must be seen in the context of the mentality of the age; the colonial situation was taken for granted, the basis on which an unchanging future was planned, and few people had any conception of what population growth was going to mean.

(6) There are still many examples of what was potentially promising form of urban architecture, had the majority of the population not been excluded from consideration: the arcades of the town on the southern Mediterranean coast or around the Indian Ocean, the structured and spacious centres of town such as Djibouti or Rabat.

(7) Manufactured on a large scale, corrugated iron sheets of a size easily used for simple hand-assembled constructions were the precursor of a whole line of technical development resulting in today's "kits", the triumph of do-it-yourself.

(5) Djibouti was founded in 1888 to supply water to vessels en route to the Orient and Abidjan was intended as a deep-water port to serve the railway line linking Niger to the coast, the first rails of which were to be laid in 1903.

In these circumstances few resources were devoted to the improvement of native housing. Architects and engineers were seldom called upon to apply their skills to the poorer quarters.

But the colonial powers could not wish away the increasing social pressure in the native quarters, where, in the absence of adequate town-planning, housing was unable to keep pace with population growth. The well-planned prosperity of the European quarters began to look even more ostentatious, nurturing a growing national consciousness feeling among the dominated.

In the wake of the shock to the great colonial powers caused by the Second World War, the political pressures that were to lead to independence meant that at last a few housing programmes for local civil servants were put in train. A start was made on extending the electricity and water supply networks to the native quarters; yet the streets remained as open sewers during the rainy seasons.

But the people aspired not so much to fine architecture, all too obviously out of their reach, as to the right to own land and enjoy some amenities.

tative concept of development, human development, was replaced by the quantitative concept of growth, a more abstract notion since it involved the state. National economic planning and forecasting were the order of the day.

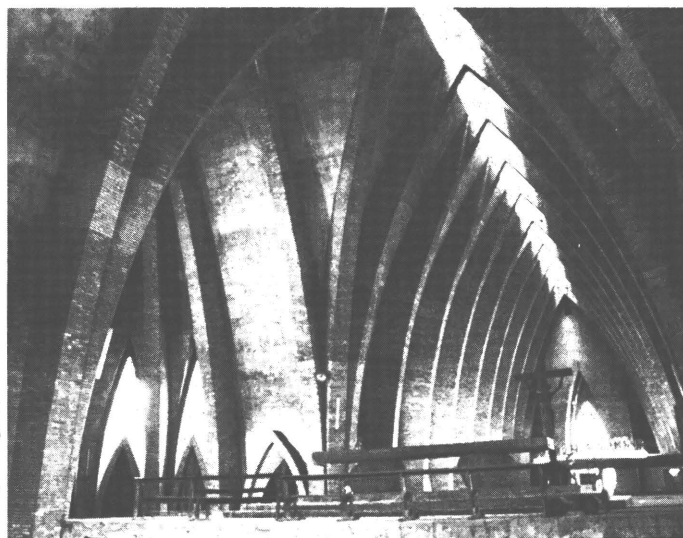
One of the things colonialism had disrupted was the relationship between town and country; towns became centres of economic and social change, while the countryside remained true to traditional ways. Industrialization, optimistically hailed as the key to development, widened this rift and produced an increasing drift of population from country to town. Cities in particular, rather than the smaller provincial centres, attracted people with their promise of jobs, hospitals, schools and leisure, all the symbols of progress which made the villages seem stale and second-rate. People flocked to the city to seek their fortune.

And "the city" essentially meant the capital, where modern life was in full swing, as could be seen from the new buildings. They expressed two functions: the "running" of the country, with the machinery of state and communal life expressed in public works programmes—



SEDES/J. Bergerot

In Fiji, the finest hotel in Suva combines local and imported materials and architecture



SEDES/J. Bergerot

A well-conceived church vault of brick and reinforced concrete in the Congolese capital, Brazzaville

Independence

It soon became obvious that precious as sovereignty was a young country was still in a situation of crippling dependence.

Having suffered the dead hand of colonialism, the newly-independent countries of the Third World not surprisingly made a religion of development. Many dreamed of finding a way back to their roots, but whatever policies they espoused, they still needed outside assistance.

Since the crux of under-development was seen as the inability to match the industrialized countries' performance in producing goods and satisfying needs, it was those countries' criteria which were now applied. The developing countries called on the developed to identify the problems and devise and provide solutions. The analysis was in economic terms: production, employment, earnings, imports, exports, added value, everything to be measured in figures and statistics. Insidiously, the quali-

parliament buildings, ministries, law courts, universities and schools, hospitals, chambers of commerce and perhaps a conference centre, too, and a President's palace—and the new economic vitality, the business centres with their international hotels and office blocks housing corporate or bank headquarters.

These were the buildings that gave structure to the cities, becoming familiar landmarks. Some of them, of course, pre-dated independence, but the needs now were of a different order of magnitude and led to a flourishing "tropical" architecture in the modern idiom—which, as far as that goes, means nothing more than that it was anti-traditional. These buildings had no more in common than was dictated by function and climate; thus, they had their work areas, leisure areas and service cores, some sort of "verandah" arrangement to offer protection from the sun, and some method of ventilation—later, air-conditioning, which turned buildings into great sealed fridges. Another common factor was their

recourse to the full range of industrial building materials: steel, concrete, glass, plexiglass, aluminium and so on.

This was architecture which showed what a town should look like, and it directly influenced the approach to housing. The city was not simply to be the older settlement writ large, but a bold prefiguration of the future.

What has broadly resulted is a tripartite urban structure. First, the highrise areas, symbol of the new town. The tower blocks with their lifts offer plenty of space, mostly taken up, however, by commercial and office premises; few people live there, other than foreigners and some officials occupying flats which generally "go with the job". Land speculation has been rife in these new urban areas and what went up were prestige buildings.

Then come the smart residential areas generally developed rapidly as government officials with the perquisite of state building loans put up their own villas, and invested in other properties which fulfilled twin government aims of stimulating private initiative and providing accommodation for diplomats and the foreign businessmen who were to get development off the ground.

Thirdly, there are the old town, undergoing implosion rather than expansion, an ever-increasing density of settlement as land is divided up into little plots or concessions allocated in ways which vary from country to country, depending on colonial administrative practice, but not usually on a freehold basis. Within his compound the "owner" will add on a room here or there, in response to demand; the usual pattern which emerges is a huddle of homes round a central courtyard. Overtly the function of these plots is to accommodate the grassroots urban population dependent on the economic activities of the city and thus ensure a measure of control over them; a subsidiary function is to act as a transit camp for those coming up from the countryside, who find it easier to "land" initially on someone from their own kin or village having already made the move. Not that this produces broad ethnic districts within the town; the commoner pattern is a scatter of little village loyalties. These incomers in fact constitute a surplus population, as there are never sufficient jobs or accommodation to provide them with a real place within the city.

A fourth, and emblematically familiar, urban habitat has to be added; the shanty-town, the unregulated peripheral clutter of shelters improvised out of odd bits of wood, breeze blocks, cardboard boxes, corrugated iron, tar paper, rags, polystyrene or whatever. In this unserved sprawl live a more or less permanently floating population of urban marginals whose dream is to make it one day to the old town (8).

Actually, although the grid system of concessions in the old town looks satisfyingly official, the housing conditions for families are often not much better than those in the shanty towns.

Since we are considering housebuilding in the develop-

ment context, what is the attitude of governments to all this?

The relatively affluent, as we have seen, have access to loans which they use to increase the stock of "desirable" residential accommodation. But as well as stimulating development from the top down, the state has a social responsibility for those lower down the scale, and housing is a social good par excellence; not only does it affect on something as basic as health, it is a means of integrating the less stable section of the population.

By definition, the aim of public housing provision is to help families lacking the means to get their own accommodation. In practice, however, it does not work out quite like that. Whether a government is using national resources or aid for its housing schemes, two criteria have to be met: the buildings have to conform to certain technical standards laid down, and occupants must have a steady source of income. This latter condition effectively ensures that the housing goes not to those for whom it was initially intended, but to government employees.

This Catch 22 leaves unresolved the claims on the housing departments of the mass of the poor, desperate to become fully paid-up citizens, and beyond them the governments who decide on urban development policies and lay down building regulations.

The key which unlocks the door is the building permit. It alone gives a house the right to exist, but the technical standards it enshrines tend to be those applying in the former colonial power, plus a few concessions made over the years to local conditions. Quite apart from the amount of procedural red tape involved, people wishing to build very often simply cannot afford the type of housing which complies with those standards.

Given that the rate of population growth far outstrips the feeble progress of low-cost public housing—i.e. housing that the mass of the population can afford to buy or rent (9)—the bottleneck appears to be impassable.

Over the last 10 years or so that authorities have become more aware of the problem; state-planned "housing estates" built by parastatal construction firms are being supplemented by new ideas about intermediate types of urban development, using the money available to parcel out building sites and supply services—water, electricity (10), surface drains, sometimes sewerage—and health, educational and administrative facilities. In this way governments can meet one of their basic responsibilities, that of providing legally recognized and adequately serviced urban housing opportunities.

The point of the site-and-service approach is that it can cater for those who could not otherwise afford a house. Two things go into the building of a house: materials and labour, the latter having traditionally been supplied by the eventual occupant himself. By giving people sites and allowing them again to organize the building of their own houses, the cost of the labour element is saved; the

(8) One should not be too quick to cast first stone; it is not so long since our developed Western cities had their shanty-towns, and they still have their slum quarters—think of New York. Industrial development may bring prosperity, but it also secretes a sub-proletariat, the social cost of which tends to be left out of the reckoning.

(9) Always assuming that their income can be determined, which neither the national accounting system or local surveys have succeeded in doing.

(10) Often the services are supplied to a central point; individual householders may not be able to afford to become connected and pay the user charges immediately, but can do so later.



Abidjan and Ouagadougou (left and right) provide examples of an accepted idea of how the capitals of two newly independent countries were expected look: it was also a question of prestige

occupant can also decide to start in a small way, with perhaps just one room, adding to it as and when spare money and manpower become available.

This goes against the orthodox bureaucratic attitude to (imported) building regulations, but it is the only way out of the impasse.

The future

There is no point in simply hoping, like Mr Micawber, that something will turn up, though the short-sighted attitude of some governments suggests a belief in divine intervention. Today's problems are not going to solve themselves; on the contrary, population growth, the pressure of events and the development of communications, which may actually make complex problems more intractable, will probably combine to exacerbate matters.

There is no escaping the pressure of modern civilization. Nevertheless, the housing problem is still to do with each family's need for reasonably permanent and secure accommodation, and this requires stability.

What are the factors to be taken into consideration by the decision-makers? In the first place, while governments may understandably be anxious to pursue urban development in line with the prevailing international standards, it is a fact that the provision of housing within the last 10 years falls far short even of present requirements. The cost of housing and urban infrastructure on the one hand and the fact, on the other that those most in need cannot afford to pay are inescapable constraints, so long as town-planning orthodoxy prevails.

Secondly, even the developed countries have not escaped the effects of recession, and there is unlikely to be any increase in the flow of aid to the more vulnerable, backward Third World.

Thirdly, the pace of urbanization in the developing countries is such that in 20 years it is forecast that over half of their growing populations will live in the towns.

All these factors, of course, have a cumulative effect, and if the relationship between governments and gov-

erned is not to become simply nightmarish (12), the housing problem has to be tackled by means of (a) more effective planning policies and (b) a radical extension of site-and-service schemes, acknowledging do-it-yourself construction as a necessary element in social policy and hence in development as a whole.

Planning

Land-use planning is nothing new and many countries already have policies of this kind. Unfortunately, they are bound up at the moment with an approach to development heavily dependent on imports of capital, materials and technology. The effect of government action in various spheres is therefore to turn people into passive *objects* of development (assuming the necessary cash is available) instead of its agents. Planning has to become a diffuser of development, and not of grandiose public works. When Presidents decide to hold independence day celebrations in provincial capitals (13), lavishing on them new hotels and other facilities, then in a sense this may be "development", but it is divorced from any planning logic.

The buildings, designed by foreign architects are invariably put up in a hurry and thus at exorbitant cost (14) by contractors, again often foreign, based in the capital. Once the bunting has been taken down, can the massive investment really stimulate development?

There is an interesting comparison to be made here. Two years ago a central African country decided to promote its tourist trade. The trouble was that many provincial towns lacked proper accommodation for tourists and were often isolated, particularly in the north of the country (15). Transport costs would more than double the

(12) An American science fantasy movie set in the future offered a horrifying picture of riot control in New York in which a bulldozer is used to scoop up demonstrators in its huge iron jaws.

(13) As the President of Ivory Coast and more recently the President of Gabon have done.

(14) In some cases cement and even sand were actually air-freighted in!

(15) During the rainy season, air and river transport offer the only means of access.

cost of building materials, which had to be brought from the capital. Then a consultancy came up with a plan for small-scale modular units of 15 or 30 rooms, plus a "function room". These national "rest-houses" (15) could be set up in all the more isolated towns, providing a link with the capital and helping draw the provinces into the fabric of the national economy.

The simple, functional modules can be adapted to the site built as one or two storeys. They would be in brick, and this is the key to the scheme, since clay is found in abundance throughout the country and has in the past been used for everything from village mud huts to sizeable brick-built colonial edifices, still in excellent repair after 50 years. All these towns are self-sufficient in building materials, therefore, and indeed a northern provincial governor still gets clay bricks hand-made locally so that he can put up some of the buildings needed without having to count on government supplies, which never materialize.

All that would be needed locally for the construction of one of the standardized hotels would be a village kiln (17) with an output variable from 2 000 to 10 000 bricks a day, a works supervisor, either brought in from the capital or engaged under one of the voluntary assistance schemes, plus local labourers, who would get the chance to improve their skills on the job. In this way, the town not only gets a hotel, with all the economic possibilities that offers, but also the basis for a local construction industry, which is of course a crucial factor in any economic expansion. The local community is thus enabled to generate its own development.

In a developing country the provincial hotel is not so much a commercial amenity as necessary infrastructure, and as such a suitable object for government investment, particularly if the cost, as here, is kept to a minimum. A government decision to go ahead with the rest-house chain would represent an exemplary piece of planning, since it would involve the people in changing their own circumstances, improving housing in particular, rather than waiting passively for "modern society" to take them over.

So far no decision seems to have been taken on the project, though senior officials regard such schemes as essential if developing countries are not to become ever more dependent on outside assistance.

Owner building

The project just discussed, with its implications both for planning and for the construction industry and housing in general, demonstrates neatly that architecture has human and social as well as technical and economic aspects.

Notoriously, project decisions are liable to be affected by "contacts" between the authorities and foreign businessmen; notoriously, also, a considerable number of countries which have insisted on getting aid to build cement works then do all they can to promote the use of

cement in construction in order to maximise output and make the investment pay.

Obviously, factors like these do influence architecture and housing design. But it is important, nevertheless, not to consider the issues in such terms. The crucial factor in architecture is of a psychological nature.

Whether a politician has come to power by a democratic or an authoritarian process, he has to convince the people that he is going to lead them towards development. The yardstick by which progress is measured is the lifestyle in the industrialized countries, based on efficiently organized mass industrial production able to satisfy and indeed stimulate mass demand.

There would be nothing wrong with opting for such an approach were circumstances in the South more similar to those in the North, but the characteristics of production factors and markets are too different. In the developing countries the real cost of imported or manufactured goods is effectively twice what it is in the industrialized countries, so the usual calculations are distorted. Yet the system grinds on as if things could go in this way for ever. It is this lack of economic realism which explains the scale of the "informal" economy in Third World cities, where between 60% and 75% of the working population may be engaged in some form of more or less ingenious moonlighting (18). But when it comes to building, such initiative is frowned on; the informal construction industry is regarded as a blight.

Architecture has to be "official", bearing the stamp of the relevant ministry's approval. The system produces two classes of house. There is the senior official or manager's status-symbol villa or bungalow—"modern", naturally, like the car—taking over and carrying on the style favoured by the colonial officials: spacious rooms, picture windows, and now, of course, air-conditioning. And for those able to scrape together enough for the rent or mortgage the more modest "estate" housing unit is built. It is in the same non-traditional construction materials, but cramped—often with only one or two rooms—less generous with the windows (a wood-framed space is dearer to build than a concrete wall) and generally finished to a cheeseparing standard. This second category of house has its inevitable little courtyard, with the cooking area and more or less rudimentary sanitary facilities (19). Most of these estate houses are built to a standard formula (easier for the bureaucrats) at fixed prices calculated to fit the housing finance system. Costs are further trimmed by getting a single contractor—usually the lowest bidder—to mass-produce a certain quantity of the units.

It is this rigid system which is responsible for the current housing shortage in all the developing countries. Now the site-and-service scheme, forcefully advocated by the World Bank, has driven a wedge into it. So once individual initiative is allowed, what are people going to build?

(18) Including the splitting up of packs of cigarettes, sugar, etc. for sale by the unit, the manufacture of kitchen utensils out of tin cans, itinerant food stalls, pavement "tailors" with their manual sewing machines and joiners knocking up simple furniture in their backyard out of old wooden crates, etc.

(19) The courtyard also offers space for adding an additional room or two, or for a hen-run.

(16) The management would also be "standardized", with the local administration being kept as simple as possible and the other management functions, supervision and maintenance being the responsibility of "itinerant" managers based in the capital.

At the moment, towns are being extended in two ways: by the officially-sanctioned, non-traditional prestige villa or cheap bungalow; and by the spontaneous, and illegal, springing up of shanty-towns.

Between these two extremes there is an inexorably widening gap; after all, 50% of the population is expected to be living in the towns within the next 20 years. But is building in towns intrinsically so different from building in villages? If the need is for more family housing of a decent standard, can the same designs and techniques not be used in town or country? Can traditional building styles provide an answer?

Here we must make clear exactly what is meant by traditional building styles. Two aspects are involved, one formal, one dynamic. Formally, the range of housing styles is very wide, from the Fijian grass hut lashed together with coir rope to the fine Dogon stonework, from the double-cylinder mud houses of Senegal, with their asymmetrical oval roofs, to the mud-house of Basse-Casamance with its central galleried rainwater cistern or the simplest mud-brick dwelling on the banks of the Congo. The dynamic aspect, for our purposes, is something more crucial; it is the ability of the traditional architecture, in all its diversity of forms, to adapt to the circum-

ing permits build breeze-block rooms behind a "camouflage" wall of shanty-town bits and pieces. In South Sea islands lacking fresh-water streams, villagers will cover their thatch with a piece of plastic sheeting to channel rain water into a tank. People acquiring makeshift shelving or cupboards for the first time will find that they fit better into a rectangular hut than the traditional round hut. Such instances of adaptation are numerous.

The face of the rural and urban Third World is changing continually. As children go to schools, and time becomes money, people are less willing to keep renewing and repairing wattle and daub, or thatch, and prefer to use the longer-lasting corrugated iron sheets. This is frequently deplored as decadence, but is actually a natural adjustment to a changing environment.

What, then, is the role of traditional architecture? Should the authorities agree to let anything go, or ought they to lay down building standards and planning regulations?

Organization

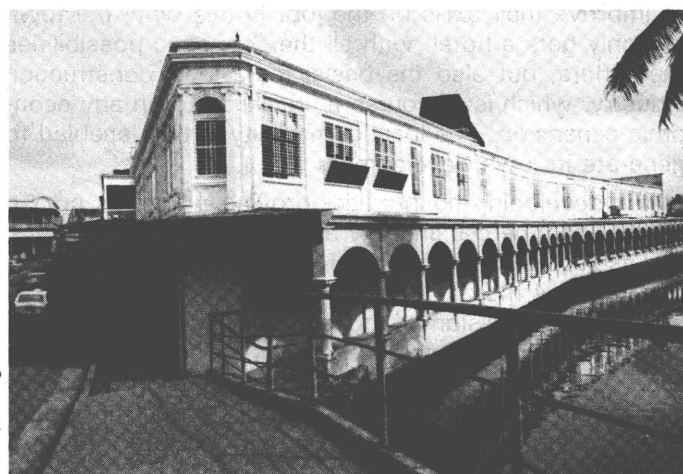
Whatever may happen in practice, it is widely agreed that the aim of "cooperation" and technical assistance should be to transfer technology, not provide the devel-



Two-level hut in Kiribati...

stances of the environment. Such architecture must not be interpreted rigidly—it is an evolving corpus of experience at the service of the community.

It sometimes happened in colonial days that a bush village three hours walk from the nearest track was summarily ordered to move to a location less inconvenient to the tax collector. The villagers soon managed to recreate their surroundings. Today, they get their sons working in the capital to bring them bits of corrugated iron for roof repairs. If they can, they lay cement floors and use breeze blocks for walls. Quite often, in cities, people denied build-



... a colonial house in Fiji—glimpses of the Pacific which contrast with this street in Nouakchott (Mauritania). Architecture does not necessarily follow technical progress and urban planning theories



oping countries with a permanent corps of expatriate minders. Materially, development is about enabling the developing countries to do and make things themselves, and shake off their import dependence.

Housing in particular is of great social, economic and political importance, and is due for a radical rethink.

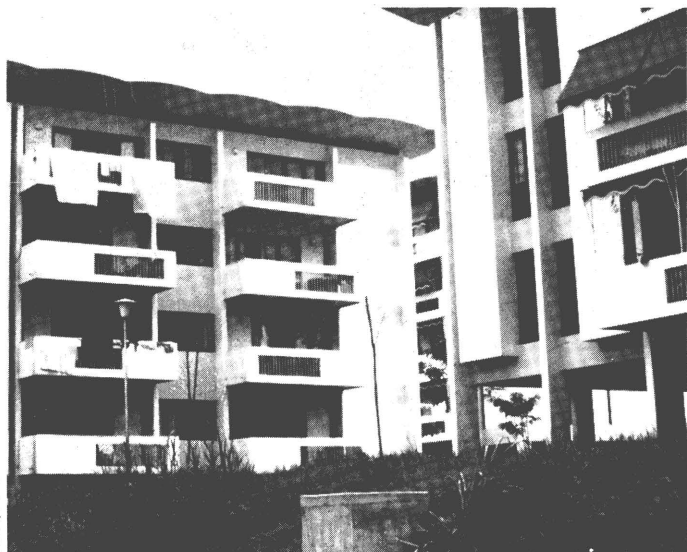
Building calls on materials and labour, and, linking the two, technology, the art of using the particular material in the best way. This art cannot be codified in a hard-and-fast set of



A Bamiléké chief's residence in Cameroon...



And a Douala slum (right). Bamiléké building was known for its sophistication and durability—now the young people crowding the shanty-towns no longer use the skills inherited from their parents



Good housing, as in Yaoundé (left) or Luanda (right), is now a major preoccupation of the young and not-so-young alike: it is considered both a condition and a proof of success in life



regulations; it is a matter of applying know-how in particular situations. The answer is a well-conceived technical assistance programme to offer advice on materials, building techniques and workshop management. This assistance should more than pay for itself in the long run.

Almost 40 years ago an Egyptian architect, Hassan Fathy, started work on a new village at Gourni in Upper Egypt. What was special about this scheme was that the buildings, architect-designed to reflect both the local life-style and the climate, were to be built of mud. This was not archaism, but the result of a sober analysis of ends and means. The radical new concept, however, received only the most lukewarm of support from the authorities and was never brought to completion (20).

(20) Nothing can be done without a certain amount of back-up and there is no hope of completing a project unless the workers are regularly paid. This sort of problem is all too common.

Gourni was never the success it might have been, therefore, but it was a fruitful source of later inspiration. Developing Hassan Fathy's ideas, many architects and engineers have studied the possibilities of lowcost buildings in local materials. But actual projects have been few and far between, and abandoned without any proper follow-up. Mud is a marvellous insulating material but on its own is too vulnerable to torrential tropical downpours, which can damage both walls and foundations. Today, however, mud-based concretes incorporating cement or lime can overcome this problem. Brick, a building material with a pedigree stretching over millennia, can be locally produced in villages or the outskirts of towns at very little capital cost; all that is needed is a minimum of organization. Two years ago a French engineer developed a process of laterite polymerization which makes it possible to produce extremely hard bricks fired at comparatively cool temperatures, thus cutting costs. Standardized concrete reinforcing bars can also be produced

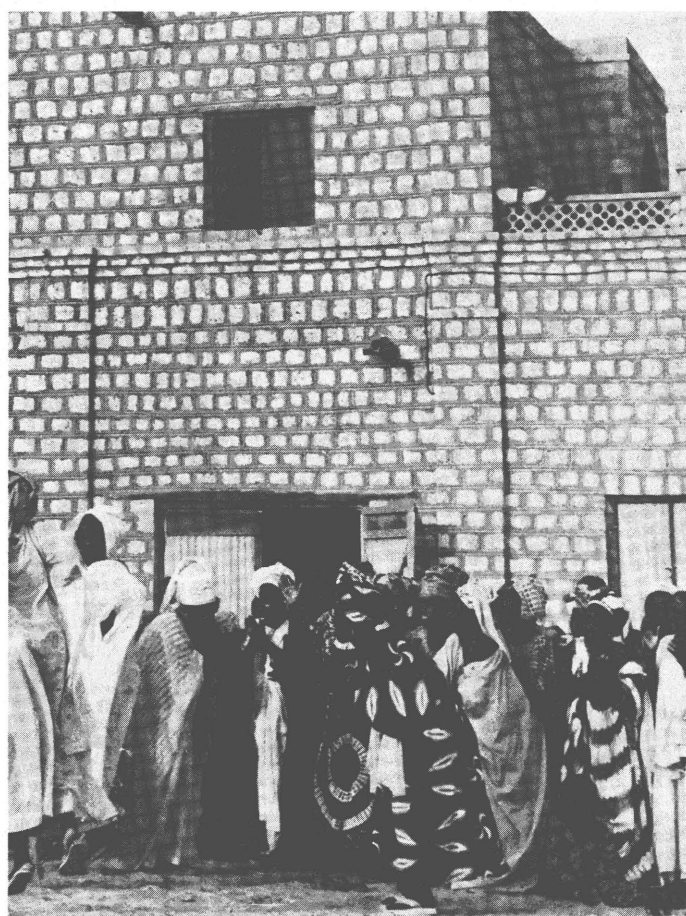
for incorporation on the spot into lintels and the like, again enabling costs to be kept to a minimum.

Private sector contractors or importers of building materials often put considerable pressure on governments to stick to the regulations and clamp down on *ad hoc* do-it-yourself housing initiatives. In fact, their fears are groundless, because there are two quite different types of "customer" involved, and the up-market building sector will continue to expand irrespective of a bending of the rules to help fulfil the demand for low-cost housing.

A detour: the architecture of tourism

International tourism pours millions of visitors into the tropical countries every year, looking for a "return to nature" to recharge their batteries. The bastions of the big tour operators are now established practically everywhere and the chain hotels rule in the name of the great god standardization. Since such tourism includes an exotic element, the architecture designed for it tries to supply local colour, reducing authentic styles to folklore. From a purist point of view, conventional concrete buildings painted and shaped to look like traditional architecture are pretty nasty. However, a tourist hotel has to do more than feed and accommodate visitors—it should also provide a change of scene. Since most tourists have little idea what they are looking at and little time to explore a different culture, the fake architecture is scarcely more offensive than the artificiality of the "exotic" experience generally promoted by the tour operators. This is not to defend the fake architecture but simply to point out a secondary effect: vulgar though it may be, such tourist-attracting "local colour" does bring home to both foreigners and local people the idea that there can be different kinds of architecture from the standard concrete framework filled with breeze blocks, styles referring back to traditional models which were to readily thrown in the dustbin as being shamefully "under-developed".

So some more worthwhile buildings have gradually come about, using a traditional local sense of adaptation to the environment to express the new function of receiving tourists. These include a fondouk in Djerba, cave-style dwellings in Matmata, a ksar (haddada) in south Tunisia; a mud house with rainwater cistern, specially built as a tourist relay by villages in Enampure (Lower Casamance); two Kampongs in Ubud and Sanur (Bali), one quite sumptuous, demonstrating the best of Balinese architecture in the form of small hotels. Local styles have also found expression in a combination of traditional craftsmanship and modern technology. All these have contributed, directly or indirectly, to a reactivation of the local economy and have thereby helped local communities who must find some sort of place in the move towards modernity. It helps stop the flight from the land, which is such a primary concern of planners who must bring down to village level as many improvements as possible to aid rural communities who, imprisoned in penury, are tempted to take the wretched gamble on decamping to the city.



In Timbuktu—long considered one of the most isolated historical towns of the world, now a tourist destination

Whose housing?

Today's schoolchildren will be tomorrow's householders. The self-awareness and high aspirations of these young people, including women, is something new in the Third World. They will want explanations for the political decisions affecting them, and housing is a prime example of the sort of issue at stake. That is why it is essential to act now to decentralize decision-making, to become more responsive to local conditions in each town, region or village, to harness the latent energies of people keen to build themselves a better life, and put the appropriate resources at their disposal (21). Building skills are widespread in the Third World. It is important to maintain this reservoir of know-how and update it in line with current needs and resources.

Otherwise, the shock waves will be felt beyond the pent-up cities of the Third World. All the 20th century's technical achievements will go for nothing unless we have the vision to use them rightly. ○ J.B.

(21) This implies getting a clearer idea of what people can actually afford. Current methods of assessment based on surveys and projections in towns, where the extent of the "informal" economy makes it practically impossible to find out how much people earn, are obviously a most unsatisfactory tool for the purposes of rational planning. Computerization gives only a spurious appearance of "scientific" rigour: rubbish in, rubbish out... People might articulate their aspirations better if they were encouraged to express their wants, rather than told to fill in questionnaires. We would get closer to the real problems if we cleared our minds of preconceptions and listened more. Figures are not so important; feelings are.

THE CONVENTION AT WORK

ACP chambers of commerce hold their second conference

More than 55 of the 63-member ACP group were represented at national or sub-regional level at the second conference of ACP economic operators held in ACP House in Brussels on 25-29 July.

Berhane Ghebray, chairman of the ACP Committee of Ambassadors, addressed the meeting of delegates of national chambers of commerce and industry and other sectors of ACP economic activity. He urged them to be innovatory in their quest for common interests. He took the opportunity to emphasize the fact that the economic development of the ACP states was, first and foremost, an ACP problem and aid could only be a complement to national effort.

Mr J.B. Wilmot, Ghana's ambassador and chairman of the ACP cooperation sub-committee, was pleased to see that the political commitment to unity among ACP economic operators made at the first conference in Togo in June 1981 was now taking practical shape. Regional chambers of commerce had been set up in all parts of the ACP group, he said, and the structure of those already in existence had been improved.

Conference participants heard reports from the delegates of Barbados and the federations of chambers of commerce of central Africa, Zimbabwe, Mauritius, Togo and Papua-New Guinea, representing the six ACP regional groups (the Caribbean, central Africa, southern Africa, East Africa, West Africa and the Pacific).

The conference was pleased to record the effort put into setting up and strengthening the ACP regional chambers of commerce. It pointed to the similarity between many of the activities of the different ACP regions and to the problems (particularly financial ones) these regions had to cope with. Participants agreed that the conference should discuss these problems.

It was noted that trade within the

group was still at a low level, representing an average of less than 5 % of external trade. The intra-ACP trade figure should go up, in comparison to both total ACP trade and trade with the EEC.

The conference recommended opening a trade development centre, one of whose functions would be to promote trade within the group.

It also invited the ACP Council of Ministers to lose no time in authorizing a study on ACP trade to be undertaken as a matter of urgency and a report to be made at its next meeting.

In view of the serious reservations of some regional federations (particularly those of central and western Africa), the question of the institutionalization of permanent administrative structures grouping all ACP economic operators was discussed at length, sometimes heatedly and

Also in the yellow pages

The Convention at work

- I. Conference of ACP chambers of commerce
- II. EDF financing
- X. Sugar negotiations

General information

- XI. Emergency aid
- XI. Non-associated developing countries
- XII. Food aid 1983

European Community

- XIV. Eurobarometer
- XIV. Hunger in the world
- XIV. JET starts up

the conference came to the conclusion that, as things stood, a flexible structure to be called the "conference of national chambers of commerce, industry and other ACP economic operators", should be set up.

This would be convened every other year and be helped in its job of maintaining links by the regional and national secretariats of ACP chambers of commerce and by the ACP Secretariat.



A cross-section of the preparatory meeting in Brussels of the ACP chambers of commerce and industry. From left to right are: Mr P. Tchiwenda head of the trade cooperation division and the ACP secretary; ambassador G. Berhane, chairman of the ACP Committee of Ambassadors; ambassador J.B. Wilmot of Ghana, chairman of the sub-committee on intra-ACP cooperation; Mr Macharia, chairman of Kenya's chamber of commerce

Modest resources, based on symbolic contributions from each national chamber, would be mobilized.

The conference finally elected a steering committee to ensure continuity. Mr F.M. Macharia (Kenya) is to be in the chair and the members will be the representatives of Jamaica and Papua-New Guinea (both vice-chairmen), Togo (rapporteur), Gabon, Cameroon, Zimbabwe, Lesotho, Ivory Coast, Nigeria, Ethiopia, Mauritius, Barbados, Fiji and Vanuatu.

The conference insisted on obtaining observer status at the ACP-EEC negotiations for the next convention. It also recommended setting up an ACP-EEC assembly of economic operators to boost ACP-EEC trade.

It is worth noting that representatives of UNCTAD, GATT and the EEC Commission attended this conference. (ACP press release) ○

INTER-UNIVERSITY COOPERATION

Putting the emphasis on human resources in future conventions

Representatives from over two dozen EEC, ACP and Middle Eastern countries met in Brussels on 11-12 July to discuss inter-university cooperation in the framework of the cooperation agreements linking these regions.

Hosting the meeting, Dr F.J. Van Hoek of the EEC Commission's development directorate traced the Commission's involvement with university development, from an early period of one-off contributions (such as individual scholarships) to the present concern with institutional development.

The meeting was intended to help the European representatives have a fuller understanding of the problems of universities in developing countries and to consider ways of overcoming them. Mr Van Hoek felt the question was essentially how to assist universities in being agents of national development, especially as regards the removal of long-term development obstacles to which governments, preoccupied with immediate problems, often fail to give due attention.

Opening the discussion, Professor

A. Wandira, Vice-Chancellor of Uganda's Makerere University, accepted the need for universities to contribute to development, but urged an open mind as to what constitutes development. Mr P. Murphy, secretary-general of the Irish organization Higher Education for Development Cooperation, endorsed the plea for an imaginative and flexible approach to inter-university cooperation. The main constraint to university development was lack of funds, he felt, but also the lack of opportunities for universities to make their case heard.

In the wide-ranging discussions that followed, there was general agreement on the following objectives of inter-university cooperation:

- to reinforce universities' capacity to train national cadres in a context which enables them to appreciate fully the social and cultural circumstances of the society of which they form part;

- to support universities' ability to undertake research rooted in and directed towards the needs of that society;

- to promote exchange and cooperation within the international academic community in such a way as to bring mutually beneficial improvement in knowledge and understanding.

In a final declaration, the EEC, ACP, Maghreb and Mashrak university institutions represented at the meeting prompted the Community to establish a special fund to support inter-university cooperation and called for a chapter on it in the next conventions with the Community. ○

EDF

Following a favorable opinion delivered by the EDF Committee (179th meeting of 6 and 7 June 1983, 180th meeting of 28 June and 181st meeting of 11 and 12 July 1983), the Commission has approved financing in respect of the following projects:

Trinidad and Tobago

Multiannual training programme
Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 3 281 000

Trinidad and Tobago is a middle-to-high income developing country,

in which oil revenues have led to rapid industrial growth. This industrial growth, which now employs more than 40% of the labour force, has only really occurred in the last 12 years, and due to its rapidity has led to considerable lacunae and shortages in appropriate technical expertise, management capacity and industrial know-how.

This project seeks to redress some of these problems by providing:

- long-term specialist support for technical education institutions;
- finance for short term specialist courses and seminars;
- funds for training overseas in regional institutes or, where necessary, in EEC states.

Caribbean ACP states

Regional tourism promotion

Fifth EDF

ECU 3 700 000

Grant — regional project

To achieve the objectives of the project, the following activities will be undertaken:

- a) To expand the regional tourism promotion activities of the Caribbean governments in Europe where, to date, the Caribbean (especially the LDCs) has a very limited profile.
- b) To take advantage of the fact that European long haul tourists normally take vacations of two to three weeks, and to promote multi-destination tours from Europe, especially to benefit the LDCs.
- c) To strengthen the individual tourism marketing machinery in the LDCs of the Caribbean.
- d) To provide resources for the creation and use of effective marketing sales tools for the Caribbean in the European market.

Burundi

Rwegura hydro-electric power station

Fifth EDF

ECU 10 000 000

Loan on special terms

The purpose of the project is to construct a hydroelectric power station on the Gitenge river near Rwegura, in the North-West of Burundi. The power station will provide a continuous supply of power which will help to reduce Burundi's dependence on external energy sources and, with the regional project for the

Ruzizi II power station, will make it possible to meet the region's energy needs in 1986.

Construction of a dam with impounding reservoir, headworks and inlet works, the power station itself and a 110 kV connecting line between the power station and the city of Bujumbura with transformer stations. The installed capacity will be 18 MW.

Burundi, Rwanda, Zaire

Ruzizi II hydroelectric power station

Fifth EDF — regional project

Grant: ECU 3 800 000

Loan on special terms:

ECU 17 230 000

The purpose of the project is to build a second hydro-electric power station on the Ruzizi river, which at that point forms the border between Rwanda, Kivu oriental and Burundi, once the other hydro-electric power plants in the region have reached saturation point, in other words probably towards 1986.

The project involves building a dam, headworks and inlet works, the power station itself and a 110-KV interconnecting transmission line between the new power station and the existing one (Ruzizi I). The station is designed for an installed capacity of 40 MW.

Burundi

Multiannual training programme

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 4 600 000

The purpose of the project is to provide the Republic of Burundi with a set of training measures designed to step up staff efficiency in the public and semi-public sectors and, hence, improve the quality of the services rendered by the state in a number of key areas of social and economic development—rural development, education and health, economic infrastructure, transport and telecommunications, public enterprises and state statistical departments.

Djibouti

Water supplies for Djibouti

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 918 000

The aim of the project is to improve the installations producing and

pumping drinking water supplies to the town of Djibouti by replacing and partly renewing the existing installations and by building a new pumping station. This work should ensure that pumping installations are adequate to meet the drinking water requirements of the town of Djibouti and the Balbala district in 1991.

Sudan

Aflatoxin research project

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 1 400 000

In connection with the regional research project on aflatoxin the project is to provide a prefabricated building to house equipment for the detoxification of oil cake at a plant sited in port Sudan.

SADCC countries

Agricultural management development programme for SADCC countries

Fifth EDF

ECU 1 000 000

Grant — regional project

The aim of this project is to help meet the management training needs of the SADCC countries in the field of agriculture, where efficiency and productivity remain low. This will be done by mounting three special 11 week SADCC agricultural management development programmes at the Mananga Agricultural Management Centre (MAMC), Swaziland.

Cayman Islands

Terminal at Cayman Brac airport

Fourth and fifth EDF

ECU 658 000

Loan on special terms

The purpose of the present project is to improve the airport facilities at Cayman Brac by building a new airport terminal. This will replace the existing inadequate and outdated airport terminal, which is too close to the runway.

British Virgin Islands

East End water supply project

Fifth EDF

ECU 161 000

Loan on special terms

Within the framework of the development plan for water resources and supply for the British Virgin Islands, the present project caters for the

needs of the East End population living in the second largest urban area of Tortola Island after the capital Road Town.

The East End water supply project will consist mainly of the construction of four wells, a 900 m³ reservoir and distribution pipework throughout the densely populated area.

New Caledonia

Drinking water supply for the Loyalty Islands

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 1 050 000

The project for a drinking water supply to the Loyalty Islands involves continuing the pumping operations on Lifou and Mare and establishing a communal drinking water supply system on Ouvea, the third of the Loyalty Islands.

It will comprise drilling boreholes and equipping them with electric submersible pump sets, building pumping stations, laying supply pipes and installing storage reservoirs, plus the necessary anticorrosive linings.

Kiribati

Multiannual training programme

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 300 000

The proposal is to finance a multiannual training programme (MTP) in the Republic of Kiribati for the period 1982-1985. It includes pre-service and in-service training at higher educational institutes overseas, both in the Pacific region and in Europe.

Fiji

Multiannual training programme

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 300 000

The present project aims at providing the finance necessary for setting up a multiannual training programme for Fiji with emphasis on acquisition of technical and vocational skills. The programme will consist of training within and outside the country, and provision of instructors where appropriate for conduction in-country courses.

Tonga

Multiannual training programme

Fourth EDF

ECU 20 000

Grant — supplementary financing decision

Given the success of the above actions, the Tongan authorities now wish to allocate additional funds in order to firmly achieve the objective of the programme, i.e., the acquisition by Tongans of planning and project preparation/management skills for use during the period of 5th EDF and afterwards.

Mali

Construction of grain storage warehouses

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 142 932

The project seeks, through the construction of two grain storage warehouses (500 tonnes each), one at Bamako and the other at Baraouli in the Ségou area, to provide the OPAM with dependable storage facilities and thereby reduce losses. The project will involve the replacement of a flexible silo erected in 1975 at Bamako under the drought emergency programmes (life: 5 years) and the construction at Baraouli of storage facilities (warehouse, office for the commercial agent and watchman's accommodation) to replace a warehouse in very poor condition that is currently rented by the OPAM. The project will thus reduce the cost of maintaining aged and obsolete facilities.

Sao Tome and Principe

Fisheries development

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 220 000

The proposal for supplementary financing is intended to increase the funds available for the fourth EDF project entitled "Fisheries development. Provision of crushed ice and refrigeration facilities" so that all the capital expenditure foreseen in the original project can be covered.

The purpose of the project, designed to help develop fisheries in Sao Tome and Principe, is as follows:

- to overhaul the refrigeration facilities and provide an ice-making unit with storage capacity;
- to train refrigeration technicians;
- to delegate the role of contracting authority.

ACP and PTOM

Overall commitment authorisation for microproject programmes

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 15 000 000

This is an overall authorisation for the commitment of ECU 15 m for the financing by expedited procedure of annual microproject programmes.

Mali

Improvements to the Sienso-Sevare road

Fourth and fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 10 300 000

A 168 km-long section of the San-Sevare-Mopti road was improved and asphalted under the first EDF. This road is part of Mali's major highway linking the centre of the country, with the inland delta of the River Niger, to the capital, Bamako.

The aim of the project is to widen and improve a section approximately 106 km long from Sevare, between km 507 and km 613.

Nigeria

Multiannual training programme and university links

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 17 100 000

The priorities stated in Nigeria's fourth national development plan (1981-1985) are first to increase agricultural production and processing, second to promote education and manpower development, and third to strengthen the economic infrastructure.

For this reason around 35 % of the total ECU 50 million EDF programme under the Lomé II agreement has been allocated to training and education.

The objective of the proposed programmes is to strengthen the social and economic development, and educational structures, of the country. The training programme proposed represents an effective balance between superior and middle level (technical) training with a high proportion of the total taking place in Nigeria or in other ACP countries. The university programme is an extension and refinement of the existing programme.

Zaire

Mwebe-Batshamba road

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 26 000 000

The project involves the construction of a paved section of highway 1 connecting Kinshasa and Lubumba-

shi. This section of 70 km from the Mwebe bridge is the continuation of the section between Kikwit and the Mwebe bridge (7.5 km) already built with Zairean funds. The overall aim is to link the towns of Kikwit and Batshamba, which are 87.8 km apart.

Sao Tome and Principe, Gabon

Supply of an ocean-going vessel

Fifth EDF

ECU 2 150 000

Grant — regional project

The purpose of the project is to supply an ocean-going cargo and passenger vessel in order to improve the sea link between the islands of Sao Tome and Principe and between the Democratic Republic of Sao Tome and Principe and the Gabonese Republic.

The project will involve:

- delivery to the port of Sao Tome of an ocean-going vessel, ready for service, 40 m long, with a capacity of between 180 t and 230 t and equipped with a standing derrick;
- supply of a full set of spare parts;
- training for the crew, both in Europe and locally.

Seychelles

Victoria Hospital redevelopment

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 2 400 000

The aim of the project is to improve the existing facilities at Victoria Hospital by the construction and equipment of a new block with the area of the hospital in the capital of the Seychelles, Victoria. The block will include 2 medical wards, an intensive care unit, a psychiatric unit, including a day centre, and the necessary related equipment.

Malawi

Lirangwa-Mwanza, Mozambique Border road

Fourth and Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 23 000 000

Special loan: ECU 10 000 000

The purpose of this project is to construct a paved, all-weather road from Lirangwe through Mwanza to the Mozambique border at Zobue.

As well as providing a reliable link between the Mwanza District and the rest of Malawi, the new road will be

part of the important international link with Mozambique, Zimbabwe and rest of southern Africa, the remainder of which has already been upgraded to paved standard.

Botswana, Lesotho, Swaziland

Customs training project

Fifth EDF

ECU 504 000

Grant — regional project

The object of the project is to improve the professional knowledge of the staff of the customs services in Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland. This is to be achieved by 9 regional training courses in Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland conducted by a special training officer seconded to the department of customs, Maseru, and participation in 3 annual higher level courses for 3 senior customs officers of BLS in EEC member states.

Kenya

Multiannual training programme

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 1 000 000

Although Kenya has just embarked on a nationwide manpower survey with EEC financial assistance, lack of manpower in some key areas can already now be identified on the basis of fragmented sectoral investigations. As Kenya's main economic potential is in the rural sector, the development of the enormous human resources in this sector and their eventual transformation into skilled manpower is particularly essential. This is reflected in the country's new food strategy paper. One main area to which this multiannual training programme addresses itself is therefore training and technical assistance support towards Kenya's efforts to secure food self-sufficiency and surplus production. Another focal point of the programme will be technical teacher training.

Gambia

Multiannual training programme

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 1 640 000

The purpose of this proposal is to provide financing for 1981-85 under the Republic of Gambia's multiannual training programme. The programme is designed to cover the cost of study and training awards particularly in

economic, agricultural, technical and health sectors, the organization of seminars and local training courses.

Mauritania

Mining surveys

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 1 500 000

The purpose of the project is to entrust to the Office mauritanien de Recherches géologiques (OMRG), by direct labour, the task of continuing work on identifying profitable deposits of minerals in the part of the "Mauritanid" chain that lies between Moudjeria and Diaguily. General surveys have already revealed a number of target areas which now need prospecting in detail.

The technical and organisational sides of the project will be coordinated by expatriate technical assistants and training for Mauritanian prospectors will also be provided.

Zaire

Technical assistance

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 130 000

The aim of extending for one year the technical assistance to the Commissariat d'Etat aux Travaux Publics et à l'Aménagement du Territoire is to enable this department to complete EDF financed projects concerned primarily or secondarily with building operations, and to finish off the training of a Zairian counterpart.

Dominica

Floriculture development

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 49 846

The project comprises the development of 1.5 hectares of land near Canefields airstrip (close to the capital) and the installation of shade netting over 0.2 hectares. In addition an irrigation facility, a packaging shed and store will be installed. The project also includes the purchase of plants for multiplication and the cost of test shipments.

Dominica

Colihaut-Arose feeder road

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 60 000

The project aims to upgrade an existing 4 mile feeder road to provide improved access to agricultural lands. This would:

- increase farm productivity,
- provide increased employment opportunities.

Zimbabwe

Rural water supply

Fifth EDF:

Grant: ECU 2 500 000

The project is a direct and urgent response to the very severe drought situation prevailing in Zimbabwe. The drought is the worst since the beginning of the century and is seriously affecting the livelihood of about 2 million people. The government's relief programme will cost about ECU 120 m and consists of the supply of food, a cattle rescue operation, and the provision of additional water points for drinking water supply.

The project is an accelerated drinking water relief programme, through the creation of about 350 boreholes and 100 wells in Victoria Province, the most drought-stricken area. A consultancy team will be appointed for the coordination of the works.

Swaziland

Teacher training colleges:

1) Ngwane; 2) Pigg's Peak

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 4 200 000

Loan: ECU 3 200 000

The present project aims to help meet the increased demand for qualified primary school teachers and to upgrade the quality of education provided at this basic level of education. This is to be done by increasing the available facilities for training qualified teachers, thereby also reducing the large number of unqualified teachers presently in the education system.

The planned project is two-fold:

1. To increase the capability of the recently opened Ngwane teacher training college at Nhlangano by completing phase two of the planned development of the college at an estimated cost of ECU 1 800 000;
2. To construct another teacher's training college at Pigg's Peak in the north of Swaziland at an estimated cost of ECU 5 600 000.

Swaziland, Lesotho

Development of Matsapha

Airport

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 2 100 000

By virtue of its landlocked position, Swaziland is heavily dependent on its neighbours for communications with the outside world and most particularly on the Republic of South Africa.

In an effort to develop its transport links independently of its influential neighbour, Swaziland has undertaken to upgrade its existing airport in order to accommodate medium-range jets.

The government of Swaziland, supported by the government of Lesotho, has requested the assistance of the European Communities for the construction of the new control tower, operations building, remote transmitter station and for providing appropriate training for ground and air staff in line with the requirements of a more sophisticated airport. Navigational aids to the control tower are to be supplied by one of the EEC member states.

Mauritania

Partial resurfacing and repairs to Nouakchott-Rosso road

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 5 000 000

The project covers repairs to approximately 50 000 m² of carriageway and partial resurfacing of existing carriageway (approximately 20 km) on route nationale No. 2 Nouakchott-Rosso (203 km).

The project will ensure satisfactory utilization of this road link, which is vital for Mauritania's communications with Senegal in particular and with West Africa in general, and will open up agricultural land in the Rosso region.

Suriname

Lower technical school — Geyersvlijt

Third EDF

Grant: ECU 2 300 000

The lower technical education system is one of the sections which fits in well with the needs of the national economy of Suriname, especially after the exodus of skilled workers to the Netherlands in recent years. The existing lower technical schools cannot cope, however, with the spectacular increase of students in the past few years. The project will solve or reduce this problem by providing for the construction of an additional low-

er technical school (LTS), as well as the supply of its equipment. The school will be situated at Geyersvlijt in the northern part of the capital, Paramaribo. This school will provide three-year courses in various mechanical and construction skills, with a total attendance of 600 students, to be reached two years from its commencement of operation.

Suriname

Improvement of the health infrastructure

Third EDF

Grant: ECU 410 000

The present project involves the establishment of a health training centre in the interior itself, with the construction of two new aid posts and some extensions to existing aid posts, and of two workshops including their furniture and equipment.

Guyana

Multiannual training programme

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 250 000

This project is an extension and a modification of the multiannual training programme project, approved on 13 July 1982, with a grant of ECU 710 000.

In October 1982, the administration requested to modify and to extend the programme in such a way that the costs of taking over 38 government of Guyana sponsored awards in the UK could be accommodated.

The purpose of the project is, then, the taking-over of 38 students, most of whom are expected to terminate their courses in 1983 and 1984.

Guyana

Improvements to the Georgetown water supply system

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 400 000

The project aims to improve the greater Georgetown water supply system. The existing pipelines have many structural deficiencies, principally at joints, which result in about 40 % of the treated water being lost due to leakage. Additionally, in many parts of the city there are frequent shortages at peak hours.

The project involves the supply of leak detection equipment and materials to carry out repairs, as well as the drilling of one deep well and the supply of related equipment to increase the supply of water in some parts of the town.

Papua New Guinea

Livestock and crops development in Huris region

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 530 000

Loan: ECU 930 000

The purpose of the project is to increase beef production in Papua New Guinea through the development of a combined cropping and livestock enterprise in the Huris Grasslands area of New Ireland. The ownership of the land will remain with the people. The land tenure will be secured by a special purpose lease.

Barbados

Tourism development

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 192 500

The overall project for tourism development in Barbados consists of two components — the production of a travel trade manual for distribution in Europe and the upgrading of equipment for the training programme for tourism industry at the Barbados Community College.

The project will improve the country's marketing capability, help to maintain and enhance the attractiveness of Barbados as a tourist destination, and strengthen Barbados' tourism competitive position by strengthening the Barbados Board of Tourism's marketing programme in Europe, and improving the equipment necessary for the training of personnel in the food service area of the tourism industry.

Bahamas

Animal feeds pilot project

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 412 000

The purpose of the project is to initiate the production of animal feeds, especially pig rations, in the Bahamas using poultry offal hydrolysate as a protein source.

The pilot plant will be complementary to the adjacent 2 500 mt. capacity animal feeds mill.

Upper Volta

Agricultural credit

Fifth EDF

ECU 1 500 000

Special loan

The aim of this project is to provide financial resources for the introduction of the use of draught animals.

The recipients are farmers that have formed village groups and they will be granted loans to purchase draught animals and tilling or transport equipment, in accordance with current lending and repayment terms. The loans will be made available first and foremost:

- i. in Komoé and Yatenga ORDs and in the impact areas of EDF-financed rural development projects;
- ii. to introduce the use of draught oxen to farmers trying this technique for the first time, or to encourage old hands.

Central African Republic and Chad

Financing of awards for studies

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 450 000

The purpose of this authorization for an overall commitment of ECU 450 000 is to finance study and training awards for nationals of the Central African Republic and Chad for the academic year 1983/84.

It is a provisional sum intended to pay for priority training in each of these two states and prevent any break in the continuity of training courses financed under Lomé II.

The money advanced will subsequently be offset against the multiannual training programme or other training activities, particularly those linked to projects approved by these two states, and it will be referred to when the dossier is presented to the EDF Committee.

Malawi

Supplementary financing for fisheries development

Fourth EDF

Grant: ECU 323 000

The present supplementary financing proposal complements a financ-

ing agreement signed on 9 December 1979 for the establishment of a Central Lake fisheries development project. It consists of the following elements:

- a 30 man/month increase in the technical assistance team;
- supplementary financing of various construction and supply items.

Benin, Gambia, Guinea, Guinea Bissau, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Liberia, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Togo and Upper Volta

Second phase, stepping up resources for deployment by WARDA

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 1 000 000

The purpose of this project is to continue to step up the resources of WARDA, the West African Rice Development Association, as a second phase of a project financed under the fourth EDF.

The aim of this project is to continue to finance (during a 2 year period) the support unit, which identifies and implements national projects in order to make optimum use of the rice-growing potential.

Sudan

Agricultural inputs and rehabilitation project. AIRP II

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 19 000 000

The objective of the project is to assure the local cost requirements of components of the World Bank supported Gezira Rehabilitation Project (GRP), and the EDF supported Jebel Marra Rural Development Project (JMRDP) and the Nuba Mountains Rural Development Project (NMRDP) through the provision of fertiliser.

A grant of ECU 19 million is proposed to supply fertiliser urea which should cover the needs of the Gezira cotton crop in 1984 (80 000 tonnes). This will be consigned on arrival in Port Sudan to the Gezira Board. Shipment of the fertiliser will initiate the transfer of local currency to the rehabilitation fund account, where it will be allocated for the rehabilitation of the irrigation and drainage structures in Gezira (ECU 13.55 million) and for JMRDP and NMRDP (ECU 5.45 million. o

EIB

EIB loan to help smaller businesses in Nigeria

The European Investment Bank, the European Community's bank for long-term finance, has lent the equivalent of ECU 40 million, under the second Lomé Convention, in support of small and medium-scale investment in industry, agricultural processing, mining and tourism in the Republic of Nigeria.

The funds have been advanced in the form of a global loan, basically a line of credit, to the Nigeria Industrial Development Bank Ltd (NIDB), for 13 years at 7.3 %, after deduction of an interest subsidy met from European Development Fund resources.

The NIDB, owned by the Federal Republic of Nigeria and the Central Bank, will onlend the proceeds of the loan to finance small and medium-scale ventures to be selected with the EIB's agreement. Some ECU 10 million will be deployed by regional development finance companies in their respective areas.

The EIB made available an ECU 25 million global loan to the NIDB in December 1978. Of this amount, ECU 4 million has been onlent by NIDB to two regional development finance companies, Northern Nigerian Investments Ltd and the Central Investment Co Ltd, while the balance has been allocated in support of new ventures. These operations cover a wide range of production including foodstuffs, carpets, rubber products, textiles, construction materials, steel sheet and iron wire, all intended for the local market, and it is estimated that they have created nearly 1 700 jobs.

This loan is an assurance of the confidence which the European economic community has in the economic resilience and developmental possibilities in Nigeria.

This view was expressed by the chairman of NIDB chief G. Ajeigbo at the signing of the loan agreement with the EIB. He assured the Community countries that the confidence was not misplaced and that Nigeria deserved it and promised to uphold it. He said that the NIDB would use ECU 30 million of ECU 40 million to finance medium size industries while ECU 10 million would go to regional development finance companies. The chairman further assured the EIB

of his bank's optimism to absorb the loan within two years.

Nigeria's ambassador to the European Communities, Chief Peter Afolabi said that, while he appreciated the EIB loan, it was only the tip of an iceberg compared to the enormous requirements of Nigeria: thus he expressed the wish that this would be the first of a series of loans granted to Nigeria by the EIB. The Ambassador emphasized that the EIB was about the only organ of the Community which was relevant to the participation of Nigeria in EEC/ACP co-operation. ○

THE PISANI MEMORANDUM

The EP backs the guidelines

The Pisani Memorandum on the EEC's development policy is "courageous and imaginative" and represents a big step forward: this is the opinion of Christopher Jackson (British European Democrat), given in his report to the European Parliament on the subject. Mr Jackson, emphasized the interdependence between Europe and the Third World, the "moral imperative" for Europe to continue giving aid to developing countries and the need for the policies of the EEC to take into account their impact on these countries.

Mr Jackson said that the EEC should continue its privileged relations with the ACP countries (the duration of the new convention should not be fixed until later), but the European Commission should also propose a detailed programme of measures to develop areas of mutual interest existing between the EEC and the countries of Asia and Latin America. In addition the rapporteur was in favour of differentiating between developing countries and those which are newly industrialized. On the problem of debt he stated that the Community must "represent the interests of the Third World in international negotiations".

Mr Pisani, underlining the importance of dialogue with the Parliament in such a matter, stated that the Community would not be quite what it was if its development policy were not what it is: "a substantial part of the treaties". At Belgrade the EEC had not played the role it could and should play, revealing instead "its hesitation" and division, regretted

Mr Pisani. The EEC should not be in such a position.

In answer to members' questions, Mr Pisani brought up the contradictions between internal and external EEC policies. He said that the EP "is not always coherent either", particularly regarding the agricultural policy. The idea of a *dialogue on the policies with the developing countries* and in particular the ACP countries:

This was not a matter of changing the policies of these countries, but simply of discussing with them, if they wished, so that there may be some coherence between the policies followed by the EEC and by the developing countries themselves. According to Mr Pisani it should, for example, be possible to envisage the ACP countries questioning the EEC at the joint ministerial councils on the possible effects Community policies could have on them.

The *relation between Lomé and the other development policies*: Europe, said Mr Pisani, had given priority to the ACP countries, but it must also be present in the rest of the Third World, which will force it to think of other forms of cooperation in particular regarding the poorest countries.

The choice *between "trade" and "aid"*: for certain developing countries trade and aid were necessary, said Mr Pisani; for the poorest it should be aid and trade.

In its long resolution, adopted with 77 votes in favour, 37 against and 3 abstentions and only slight amendments, the Parliament took its position on the future bases of the development policy: mutual interest and interdependence; the moral imperative; the limits of responsibility, the main effort for development having to come from the developing countries themselves. ○

VISITS

Dieter Frisch visits Upper Volta

The visit of the director-general of development, Dieter Frisch, to Upper Volta this June bore witness to the stability and continuity of relations between the country and the EEC. Mr Frisch's visit was at the invitation of the government of Upper Volta. He was received by the authorities, with whom he reviewed progress in the implementation of Lomé II and ex-

changed views on the outlook for the next convention. He noted a considerable convergence on the principal development policies and priorities, in particular as regards self-sufficiency in food.

Mr Frisch saw a number of agricultural projects and paid courtesy visits to the secretary-general of the CEAO (the Economic Community of West Africa) and CILSS (the Permanent Inter-State Committee on Drought Control in the Sahel). ○

CULTURAL COOPERATION

Narducci report

The Parliament on 8 July adopted the resolution contained in the Narducci (lt. EPP) report on EEC/ACP cultural cooperation. The EP welcomes the report by Mr Chasle on this subject and emphasises that human development must be the focus of development policy, regretting the lack of specific cultural cooperation provisions in the present Lomé Convention. This aspect should be taken into consideration in connection with the Lomé III negotiations, as regards education, research, training, access to science and technology. Training in particular is a fundamental sector (the EP recalls the proposal by the rector of the University of Lomé on the creation of an ACP/EEC university), as well as information.

In conclusion, the EP asked that the EEC Council of Ministers without delay examine ACP/EEC cultural cooperation and that the cultural dimension be entered in the preamble to the new convention. This should be completed by a specific chapter on this subject as well as by an indication of the necessary instruments. The EP in addition expressly emphasises that cultural cooperation will only be credible if it makes it possible to decisively improve the situation of ACP migrant workers and their families, as well as that of students. ○

ETHIOPIA

Michel Poniatowski, chairman of the European Parliament's development committee, confirmed what development commissioner Edgard Pisani had told the Parliament, namely that food aid the EEC had sent to

drought-stricken Ethiopia had not been diverted but had, indeed, reached the people it was intended for. Mr Poniatowski, who went to Ethiopia with a delegation from the EP development committee, told a press conference that the rumours about EEC aid being diverted to the USSR a few months ago were both false and mendacious and were to be put down to "political intoxication." The parliamentary delegation checked on the method of transshipment of goods for the population in Massawa and visited the Alisabieh refugee camp in Djibouti.

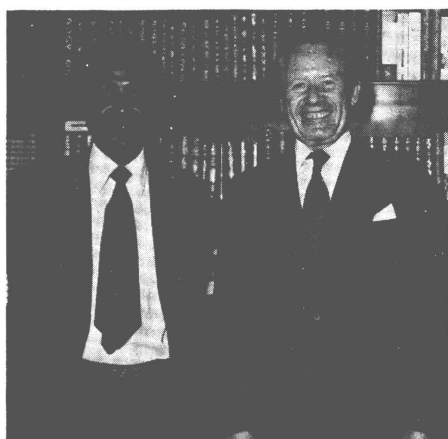
Dr Berhane Ghebray, the Ethiopian ambassador to Brussels and current chairman of the ACP Committee of Ambassadors, expressed his satisfaction with the outcome of the mission, but regretted that it had taken a parliamentary enquiry to convince people of what Ethiopia had always maintained — that there had been no misuse of food aid.

Dr Berhane, who went with the mission to Ethiopia, said the MPs had first-hand proof of the fact that the efforts of both the government and the population were entirely exemplary.

He added that any problem in the food aid sector would have more to do with volume, which was felt in Ethiopia to be extremely low. ○

ACP EMBASSIES

Zimbabwe's new ambassador, 42-year old Solomon Mahaka, has just presented his credentials to the presidents of the Council and the Commission of the European Communities. He took over from Arthur Blumeris, who has been appointed executive secretary of SADCC.



The new Zimbabwean ambassador with Gaston Thorn

Mr Mahaka had been his country's representative in Ethiopia and at the Organization of African Unity since 1980. He had previously taught and run a school in Zimbabwe. Mr Mahaka is the father of six. He holds a degree from the University of Zimbabwe and a diploma from the London Institute of Marketing. ○

FISHERIES

EEC-Equatorial Guinea agreement

On 27 June 1983, the EEC Commission and the Republic of Equatorial Guinea initialled an agreement in Brussels regulating the conditions under which Community vessels may fish in Equatorial Guinea's 200-mile fishing zone.

The agreement, which has been concluded for an initial period of three years (as from entry into effect), covers the Community's ocean-going tuna fleet, which spends a lot of its time in the Gulf of Guinea area, particularly in Equatorial Guinea's fishing zone.

The main items in the agreement are that:

- Equatorial Guinea will grant fishing licences to 27 ocean-going tuna-freezing ships in return for dues (fixed at ECU 20 per ton caught) from the Community shipowners concerned;
- in return for these fishing facilities, the Community will participate in development projects in Equatorial Guinea (without prejudice to any financing this country receives as part of the Lomé Convention). Participation has been fixed at a standard amount of at least ECU 180 000 per annum for catches of up to 4 000 tons of tuna. If the volume of catches by Community vessels in Equatorial Guinea's fishing zone goes beyond this, the Community's participation will increase proportionately.

As the fishing season has already begun in this part of the globe, the Commission will be asking the Council to come out in favour of approving the agreement as soon as possible and to authorize an arrangement with the Equatorial Guinea authorities whereby it can go into de facto provisional application immediately.

The European Communities have already signed fishing agreements with three other African countries,

namely Senegal, Guinea-Conakry and Guinea Bissau. ○

SOCIAL PARTNERS

The 7th annual meeting of the Joint Committee and the representatives of ACP-EEC employers and employees was held in the ILO building in Geneva in June.

It was co-chaired by Giovanni Bersani (Italy) and Francis Butagira (Uganda) and attended by some 140 delegates—16 members of the European Parliament, 27 ACP government representatives, 22 ACP trade unionists, 11 EEC trade unionists, 11 representatives from various regional and international organizations (ECS, CISL, etc.), 10 representatives of EEC employers and seven of ACP employers, plus 15 delegates from various organizations (such as the COPA, the CEEP and FETAF). The Council, the Commission and the Economic and Social Committee of the EEC were represented by a team of 14 and there were six observers from the ILO.

There were two main subjects of discussion:

- ACP migrant workers and their families in the EEC (this was based on the Soulat report);
- the promotion of vocational training in the ACP-EEC Convention (Mrs Williams' report).

The writers of both reports are members of the Economic and Social Committee.

The discussions of these two subjects were lively. In particular, there was a joint declaration from the ACP and EEC trade unions on migrant workers, containing a request for the next convention to include special provisions (not just in an annex) providing a minimum legal basis as a framework for the specific policies of the EEC member states.

Another joint note on the reflexions of the ACP-EEC trade unions on the promotion of vocational training in the ACP-EEC convention stressed the fact that the promotion of training in the convention should constitute an adequate response to questions arising from:

- the programming and development of human resources;
- the job market and vocational training;
- training for women in the employment policy;

— research, innovation, training and development. ○

SUGAR

Deadlock over the guaranteed price negotiations

Negotiations for a guaranteed price for ACP sugar ended in deadlock following the ACP's rejection of the EEC's offer of a mere 4% increase over last year's price.

In accordance with the provisions of the sugar protocol annexed to the Lomé II Convention, representatives of the ACP and the EEC met on 23 June to negotiate a guaranteed price for sugar for the 1983/1984 delivery period which began on 1 July 1983. Failure by the Community to agree on its own internal agricultural prices led to the delay in the start of the negotiations, which should have been concluded by 1 May.

The Community's offer was rejected on the grounds that it fell far short of the 9.5% increase claimed by the ACP. This claim was supported by statistical data submitted to the Commission since last November.

The ACP expressed deep disappointment at an offer which did not cover their costs of production and marketing, far less provide a reasonable margin of profit to their producers.

The ACP maintained that the negotiations should be conducted in strict accordance with the terms of the protocol. They stress that the automatic alignment of the price for ACP sugar with the EEC intervention price is unacceptable, makes a mockery of the negotiations and deprives them of their right to negotiate a price in accordance with the letter and spirit of the protocol.

Given that the guaranteed price for ACP sugar is c.i.f. European ports, the ACP reiterate that transport cost is a relevant economic factor which should be taken into account in determining that price. The EEC offer does not take this into account.

Following the breakdown in the price discussions, the chairman of the ACP Council of Ministers, Mr Moses Qionibaravi of Fiji, wrote to his EEC counterpart emphasizing that "inadequate proceeds from sale of sugar resulting from the absence of remunerative levels of price will have

serious consequences for the local sugar industries and affect the process of development of the ACP states". He urged the Community to review the situation urgently with a view to adopting the measures required to avoid such disastrous political, social and economic consequences in the ACP sugar-supplying states.

The ACP Group in London is also arranging for formal representations in this regard to be made to the UK minister for agriculture. (ACP press release) ○

SADCC

Exploring investment possibilities in southern Africa

Between 17 and 21 October UNIDO is holding a conference designed to promote investment in nine countries of southern Africa, namely. Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Around 200 industrialists and bankers from Europe, America and Asia will be examining possible fields for cooperation: joint ventures, industrial financing, acquisition of know-how and technology, access to foreign markets, industrial redeployment and training.

This region is rich in agricultural, mineral and energy resources—copper, iron, lead, bauxite, nickel, gold and diamonds, coal; rivers such as the Zambesi, Linyanti, Okavango and Kwando, which represent enormous hydro-electric power potential. Some 100 project profiles—selected by

careful investigation—will be presented at this conference, to be held in Lusaka. These projects relate to sectors such as agro-industry, textiles, leather products, mineral processing, building materials, basic metal products, electric and electronic equipment, chemicals and pharmaceuticals. ○

RWANDA

There was a triple celebration in Kigali on 5 July when Rwanda celebrated its 21st anniversary of independence: the Second Republic celebrated its 10th anniversary and the MRND (the National Revolutionary Movement for Development) celebrated its 8th. There was a host of foreign notables at this event, including the heads of state of Burundi, Congo, Zaire and Zambia, the vice-president of Uganda and the secretary-general of the Tanzanian political party.

In his speech, Major General Juvenal Habyarimana, President of Rwanda, traced his country's development over the past 10 years and spoke of the great challenges of the future.

Over the coming 20 years, he said, the population of Rwanda will have doubled, "so we must prepare for this and make sure we have enough food. We have just defined our food strategy, which gives absolute priority to the peasants and to food production. The development of our potential is vital if we are to handle the food crisis that is looming on the horizon. The application of policies geared to boosting production means profound internal changes



President Habyarimana of Rwanda (right) welcoming President Mobutu of Zaire

and a sustained effort over a long period. It also means changing people's outlook at international level so as to get more help with food production on the spot. Technological dependence in this field must be ruled out, as must any policy that might encourage our population to eat the sort of food it cannot produce. A properly designed food policy should encourage the endogenous development of means of produc-

tion. The mobilization of all economic operators and all energies is vital here. We shall have to be careful to see that our food strategy policies reach out to all the living forces of the nation and take account of the situation and aspirations of the whole population. In this way, these policies will have helped strengthen national solidarity and avoid the danger of the gradual separation of town and country". o

emergency programme in the Lebanon. In reaction to events at the time, UNRWA had initiated a programme in 1982 to supply emergency rations to Palestinian families — composed largely of women and children — which had been deprived of their means of subsistence. This programme, to which the EEC had contributed milk, vegetable oil and butter oil, worth ECU 3.3 million was scheduled to end in June 1983. The situation in this country has not improved, UNRWA has decided to extend its programme up to March 1984. Accordingly the Commission has decided to make this further contribution, worth ECU 650 000.

GENERAL INFORMATION

Emergency aid

The Commission has decided to grant emergency aid to the following countries:

Paraguay — ECU 100 000

The aid is intended for the 120 000 victims of floods in the regions of the rivers Paraguay and Parana, as a contribution to the aid programme run by the Pan American Health Organization (WHO regional office), which will be responsible for the purchase and transport of medicines, water tanks, small-scale equipment for removing rubbish, etc.

Argentina — ECU 250 000

Following the flooding which has affected several provinces in Argentina, causing considerable damage to crops, livestock and infrastructure, and leaving 150 000 people homeless, the Commission has decided to make this amount available to the League of Red Cross Societies for the purchase of local foodstuffs, equipment to provide shelters, blankets, etc.

Bolivia — ECU 350 000

This amount to be allocated to the Catholic Committee against Hunger and for Development (CCHD) to finance its aid programme for the victims of the drought which has affected several regions in the Bolivian altiplano and threatened over 1 million people with famine through lost harvests. The money is intended for the local purchase and transport of foodstuffs, the purchase and transport of medicines, etc.

Nicaragua — ECU 250 000

The aid is intended for over 50 000 victims of the events which

have taken place at Nicaragua's northern frontier and forced them to leave their homes to seek refuge in safer areas.

ECU 150 000 for Médecins sans Frontières Belgique (purchase and transport of medicines, etc.);

ECU 100 000 for Oxfam Belgium (purchase and transport of local household foodstuffs, utensils, equipment to provide shelters, blankets, etc.).

Peru — 2 000 tonnes of cereals

The aid decided by the Commission is intended for the victims of recent floods: 35 000 people in the Tumbes region and 48 000 in the Piura region. The aid is worth ECU 300 000.

Lesotho, Mozambique, Zimbabwe

These three countries have applied for emergency food aid following the severe drought, which, incidentally, is affecting a number of other African countries.

The Commission has decided to allocate the following aid:

Lesotho: 2 500 t of cereals (worth ECU 375 000)

Mozambique: 2 300 t of cereals and 350 t of vegetable oil (worth ECU 555 000)

Zimbabwe: ECU 500 000 for supplies of beans and/or groundnuts.

UNRWA-Lebanon

The Commission has decided to grant emergency food aid of 700 tonnes of vegetable oil to the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine refugees (UNRWA) for its

ICRC-Ethiopia

In view of the drought currently afflicting Ethiopia, the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) has launched an international appeal on behalf of that country.

The Commission, in response to this appeal, has decided to grant aid of ECU 250 000 for the purchase of beans for Ethiopia through the agency of the ICRC. o

AID TO NON-ASSOCIATED DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

As part of the 1983 programme of aid to non-associated developing countries the Commission has taken decisions on the following projects:

JUNAC (Junta del Acuerdo de Cartagena) (Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Venezuela)

ECU 6 000 000

Regional project for the promotion of timber and its industrial uses

The project consists of promoting, in the sub-region of the Andean Pact, the use for industrial purposes of the results of research carried out on tropical timber by JUNAC together with its five member countries and with financial backing from the EEC.

Although timber is a rich resource in these countries, it is not frequently used in the building industry, which prefers the traditional imports.

Research has enabled the store of knowledge on the advantages and

techniques of using wood as a building material to be increased. This knowledge now has to be transferred and extended for use by those engaged in economic activity in the subregion, notably by means of information campaigns, seminars and training courses. The use of wood in the building trade is to be encouraged by means of show-houses and other rural constructions for demonstration purposes.

Bolivia

ECU 16 000 000

Rural microprojects

The programme consists of a set of microprojects, to be carried out immediately, for the direct benefit of the rural population (arable farmers and livestock farmers) of two of the poorest districts of the high plateau in Bolivia, Potosi and Oruro.

It is intended to make a practical contribution towards boosting food-production for the entire population of these two districts, half of which consists of town-dwellers, including impoverished miners who have to work in difficult conditions.

Ecuador

ECU 2 850 000

Rebuilding of bridges

The project involves the rebuilding of 11 bridges in the provinces of El Oro, Guayas and Los Rios, on the Ecuadorian section of the Panamerican coastal highway linking Caracas (Venezuela) and Barranquilla (northern Colombia) with Valparaiso (Chile) via Peru.

These bridges were destroyed or so badly damaged as to make them impassable during the exceptionally severe floods which occurred during the winter of 1982/1983.

In all, 690 linear metres of bridge have to be rebuilt on the exact sites of the damaged or destroyed bridges.

Mozambique

ECU 1 075 000

Beira fish-processing plant

The purpose of this project is to provide supplementary financing for a plant to process the fish caught by Mozambique's fleet. The plant is located in the bay of the port of Beira and will produce 2 000 t of canned fish per annum and process 1 600 t

Food aid 1983

Following the favourable opinion given by the food aid committee (meeting on 13-14 July) the Commission has agreed to the following allocations:

Indirect aid

Country	Cereals ('000 t)	Milk powder (t)	Butteroil (t)	Other products
Organizations				
WFP projects	65	32 000	6 000	
reserve	40	—	—	
UNHCR Afghan.	50	3 000	1 400	2 500 sugar, 500 oil, 4 000 beans
East Afr.	15			
S.E. Asia	12			
Cent. Am.	1			
UNRWA		1 418	939	
		1 000		
ICRC	15	1 000	1 000	400 sugar, 620 beans
LICROSS	2	1 500	500	
NGOs	25	27 000	2 000	1 400 sugar, 200 oil 700 beans, 50 dried fish
Total	225	66 918	11 839	

Direct aid

Country	Cereals ('000 t)	Milk powder (t)	Butteroil (t)
1. Africa			
1.1 <i>Sahel</i>			
Mali	15	600	200
Mauritania	7	1 000	900
1.2. <i>W. Africa</i>			
1.3. <i>Cent. Africa</i>			
CAR	1	200	—
Sao Tomé	1	—	100
1.4. <i>E. Africa</i>			
Burundi	—	100	25
Kenya	16	—	—
Rwanda	3	200	50
Sudan	12	500	—
Tanzania	20	1 800	400
1.5. <i>Horn of Afr.</i>			
Ethiopia	20 + 20	2 000	500
1.6. <i>Ind. Ocean</i>			
1.7. <i>S. Africa</i>			
Angola	20	—	—
Botswana	3	600	—
Lesotho	6	300	—
Mozambique	40	1 200	200
Swaziland	4	—	—
Zambia	24	500	400
2. Mediterranean			
Egypt	135	10 000	2 500
Lebanon	10	800	—
3. Caribbean/Latin America			
Bolivia	10	1 100	200
Grenada	0,5	250	—
Guyana	—	300	100
Honduras	5	2 000	600
Nicaragua	4	2 000	300
4. Asia			
Bangladesh	140	—	2 000
India	—	35 000	11 200
Total	516,5	60 450	19 675
Overall total decided	741,5	127 368	31 514

Other products: 1 000 t veg. oil, 3 500 t beans (Nicaragua); 700 t veg. oil (Bangladesh); 500 t veg. oil (India).

of fish and shrimp waste into animal feed.

Interim Mekong Committee

ECU 750 000

Technical assistance

The project consists in providing technical assistance for the secretariat of the Interim Mekong Committee in order to enable it better to help with the preparation and execution of development projects in the countries that are members of the committee and to bring a small pilot reforestation project in Laos to a successful conclusion.

Bangladesh

ECU 15 000 000

The aim of the programme is to finance imports into Bangladesh of fertilizers originating in the Community, for a total amount of ECU 15 m. The equivalent value in local currency, determined on the date the fertilizers are delivered, will be entered in a special account at the Bangladesh Treasury as an EEC contribution earmarked for financing part of the local costs incurred in respect of the "Deep Tubewells II" project.

This project concerns the irrigation of a cultivable area of approximately 130 000 hectares situated in the northern-central area of the country, by means of 4 000 deep tubewells (DTWs). In addition there will be measures to strengthen the cooperative system and provide farmers with the required inputs and credit.

India

ECU 1 000 000

Pilot project for village trout fish-farming in Jammu and Kashmir

The fact that rainbow and other trout were introduced nearly a century ago and have survived in the

mountain streams and spring-fed pools in Jammu and Kashmir proves that the natural conditions suit such fish and that they thrive there. However, there is still room for improvement as far as the diet and income of rural families in the villages are concerned; this can be achieved by stepping up the natural growth rate of the fish in these waters and using more advanced fish-farming methods and forced feeding.

This pilot project is part of an experiment to apply simple fish-farming techniques in Jammu and Kashmir, where they are as yet untried. ○

EIB

Jordan

The European Investment Bank, the European Community's bank for long-term finance, has lent the equivalent of ECU 6.5 million for improving and extending the power distribution network in Amman, Jordan.

The loan, provided from the EIB's own resources (i.e. chiefly the proceeds of its borrowings on the capital markets), carries a 15-year term with interest payable at 8.05 %, after deducting a 2 % subsidy paid from the Community budget.

The loan is to the state which will on-lend the proceeds to the Jordanian Electricity Power Company Ltd (JEPCO), responsible for electricity transmission and distribution in Amman and neighbouring areas.

Lebanon

The European Investment Bank has granted a loan for the equivalent of ECU 5 million towards equipping Zouk thermal power station near Beirut with two 125 MW generator units.

The funds have been made available under the first EEC-Lebanon financial protocol for a term of 14 years and carry interest at 8.05 %, after deduction of a 2 % subsidy borne by the Community budget. The borrower is the Council for Development and Reconstruction (CDR)

which will onlend the proceeds to "Electricité du Liban".

UNIDO

Industrial production of developing countries shows no growth

The share taken by the developing countries in world industrial production has increased by only 2.9 % since 1963, according to statistics from UNIDO (United Nations Industrial Development Organization). This share has risen from 8.1 % in 1963 to 10.9 % in 1982 (China not being included in these figures), whereas during the same period the share taken by the industrialized countries has fallen from 77.3 to 64 % and that of the socialist countries has risen from 14.6 to 25 %. On the geographical level, the share in industrial production taken by the developing countries was: West Asia 0.80 %, Africa 1.11 %, South and East Asia 3.43 %, Latin America 5.68 %.

AUDIO-VISUAL

An international meeting on the Convention at FUB

Within the framework of the International Economic and Training Film Festival, a meeting will be held, for the first time, on the theme "ACP-EEC: prospects, dialogue and participation." This will take place on 7 November 1983 at the Institute of Sociology of the Free University of Brussels, 44, avenue Jeanne, 1050 Brussels.

The meeting is at the initiative of Charles Sibenaler of the "Cercle Solvay", and is under the patronage of H King Baudouin. It has the support of the Belgian government, the secretary-general of the ACP group, the United Nations office in Brussels, European institutions and experts on electronic means of communication. The meeting will be chaired by ACP secretary-general Thomas Okelo-Odongo, (press release). ○

Erratum

In a short article (no 80) on a press conference in Brussels held by Congolese and Gabonese ministers on a mining project between their two countries (in the yellow pages), we inadvertently switched the nationalities of the two ministers. Mr Rudolph Adada is the Congolese mining minister and not the deputy PM of Gabon, and Mr Etienne Guy Mouvagha-Tchioba is, of course, the deputy PM of Gabon and also responsible for mining. *The Courier* offers its apologies to both ministers. ○

EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

Opinion poll on European morale

In its 19th edition, the Eurobarometer on the state of public opinion has made a more sophisticated ana-

lysis than in previous polls of Europeans' "morale":

1) **Recent development of the country's economic situation** is considered rather less good or much less good in the majority of countries. The Irish are the most dissatisfied (62 % think that the situation is much less good), and the Danes the most positive in their attitude (45 % think the situation is "a little better"), followed by the British and the Greeks (in both countries 26 % think the situation is a bit better, but about as many think it is a bit worse). The latter category was more optimistic six months ago however. As for the situation of households, most people find it to be unchanged, but a fairly high percentage of Belgians, Irish, Dutch, French and Luxemburgers (at least 30 %) think it is rather less good and 37 % of the Irish that it is much less good.

2) **Satisfaction at the life one is leading** and feeling of happiness remain quite stable in comparison with previous polls: in Italy, however, satisfaction with life is increasing slightly (this country formerly came last, but now comes second to last, followed by Greece); this satisfaction is also on the increase in Denmark (which remains in top place, followed by Netherlands, Luxembourg, Ireland).

When it comes to the feeling of happiness, more than three-quarters of Europeans say that they are "really happy" or "fairly happy", with the Dutch, Irish, Belgians, British and Danes in the lead, and in bottom place the Greeks, followed by the Italians, French and Germans. Asked what they thought of as happiness, 58 % of those questioned said health, followed by life of the couple, family harmony, the fact of having enough money, the fact of having children, the fact of feeling useful to others, of doing interesting things, of getting on well with one's friends, of being well thought of by others, of having free time.

3) **Satisfaction at workings of democracy, as compared with 1981**, has increased in Germany, Denmark, and above all in the United Kingdom, while it is falling in Luxembourg, Ireland and France, and a fall is also in the offing in Greece. In 1973, when this question was asked for the first time, the Belgians were the most satisfied with the way democracy was working in their country.

4) **Attitude to changes in society** is a relatively stable factor with the "reformist" option in a majority

everywhere (52 % in Germany and 74 % in Italy). The "revolutionary" option gains 8 % in Greece and has fallen significantly in Italy and in France (where in 1976 it gained 10 %), whereas "anti-subversion" is a preference principally in Germany, Denmark and the United Kingdom.

5) **For the first time a question was asked concerning unemployment**, and more precisely concerning the possibility of unemployment falling if business picks up. Seven out of ten Europeans believe that unemployment will not go away even if business does improve, and the most pessimistic are the Dutch (91 %). ○

GSP 1984

The Commission of the European Communities has just approved proposals to send to the Council of Ministers for the EEC's 1984 scheme in the framework of the Generalised System of Preferences (GSP). These proposals fall within the guidelines established by the Council, which on 16 December 1980 not only renewed the EEC's GSP scheme for a further 10-year period (1981-1990) but also accepted a more detailed framework for the operation of the scheme during the five years 1981-1985. ○

COUNCIL

Hunger in the world

The Council has recorded its agreement on a regulation implementing a special programme to combat hunger in the world.

The regulation provides for the Community to implement on an experimental basis special measures to combat hunger in the world. The aid granted is to be directed to the developing countries, and especially the least-developed of them. The purpose of the aid is to support or stimulate the recipient countries' own efforts. It will help towards improving the living conditions of the most needy sections of the population in the countries concerned.

Community aid will take the form both of support measures for recipient countries which have undertaken to increase their level of self-reliance in food and of support measures designed to protect their natural resources and improve the way in which these resources are utilized.

Because of the experimental nature of the special 1983-1984 programme, the Council agreed to finance it from the appropriation of ECU 50 million entered in article 958 of the 1983 budget.

Adoption of the 1983 food aid programme

The Council also formally adopted the regulation on the 1983 food aid programme of the EC Community on which an agreement had been reached at the end of June in Luxembourg.

The Parliament was consulted for the third time through the emergency procedure by the Council on two regulations concerning food aid management: it requested postponement of the consultation, but emphasised the fact that this must not delay actual delivery of the aid. In practice, the Parliament is thus giving the "green light" which the Council requested to implement the 1983 programme.

The chairman of the development committee, Mr Poniatowski (Fr. Lib.), pointed out that the Parliament clearly indicated, in May and June, that it cannot adopt a position on a regulation whose regularity it is formally contesting and which undermines the Parliament's budgetary powers. ○

ENERGY

JET start-up

The JET (Joint European Torus) experiment was operated for the first time at Culham in Oxfordshire in the United Kingdom on 25 June 1983, having been completed on time and within a few per cent of the cost estimates made in 1975 (taking inflation into account). This marks the culmination of a five-year construction programme, costing ECU 322 m at current prices, which has been carried through by an international team drawn from the 11 European countries participating in the project.

JET is the largest and most ambitious tokamak in the world and has been constructed as part of the Euratom Fusion Programme. Completion of the construction enables the start of a seven year programme of experiments to determine the feasibility of using nuclear fusion to provide a long-term energy source. ○

Can urban development be controlled?

by Paul DELOUVRIER

The concentration of large numbers of people and many economic, political, cultural and scientific activities into more or less confined spaces is here to stay. It is nothing new. It is an old, old phenomenon. But although urban growth seems ineluctable, although not without advantages from a certain point of view, it does represent a serious threat to the search for a balanced economic development model in the Third World. It is also a factor of insecurity and social discrimination even in the industrialized countries.

What can be done to solve this worsening problem, which, unlike many other social phenomena, is not slowing down in its development? Paul Delouvrier, a senior civil servant and chairman of the Parc de la Villette (Paris), an official French body (1), recently gave a paper on this subject to the French academy of moral and political science. Extracts, on controlled organization of urban growth, appear below.

From architects to planners

There are four reasons why it has always been difficult to control urban growth and organize it in such a way as to make it livable.

The first has to do with what one might call the inadequacy of intellectual investment in this field. The so-called human sciences are way behind the so-called exact sciences. And the art of making towns pleasant places combines so many things that one has to say that towns were not created, they just grew up — aside from the fact that princes, kings and bishops have built monuments and pierced holes, commanding views, in the ancient city network.

And that is not all. Thinkers have devoted little time to this cloudy subject. Allow me to give you a personal memory of the beginnings of one district. Before realizing that we needed a new master town plan for greater Paris, I talked to the people I thought would know about it. I got no advice I could use, but one of these competent specialists in Parisian sociology was brave enough to get to the point and say: "Give me vast amounts of money to expand my team and I will give you an initial opinion in 10 years' time". "But if we build 100 000 houses a year", I said, "in 10 years' time we shall have put up a million houses for three million people. Where shall we put them?" and the answer was: "That's not my problem. It's yours. My problem is scientific progress".

The confusion of minds and ideas in this field—in which everyone feels competent to judge because every-

day things are involved—is such that it was only recently that we learned to see the town not as the result of decisions taken by the mayor and the municipal councillors, but as the result of decisions by a multitude of people in a free society — the boss who builds up his own firm, the artist who sets up in his own studio, the countryman who comes to town in search of work and so on. And it was only recently that we found out—but did we?— how to separate abilities according to space and quantity. An architect may be first-class when it comes to designing theatres or palaces or a few houses, but it is a town planner of quite another mould who is needed to build a whole district. For a town we need town planners and for an urban area we need urban developers. This change of scale is a change of nature for which different know-how is required...

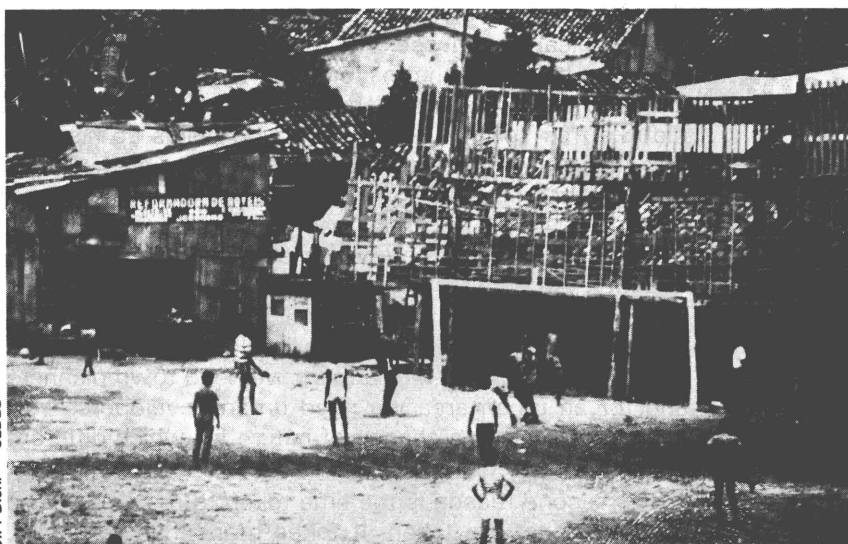
The second reason is the time taken to respond to the measures that are taken. It takes more than 10 years, often a generation, to see the results of a given scheme. Here are two examples from the Paris area. It took 15 years to realize that a failure to modernize the conurbation did not prevent it from growing and that this growth, which took place in growing discomfort, was politically disquieting. It took more than 15 years to build the 36 km boulevard périphérique — and that is a model of rapidity.

The third reason has to do with the fact, too often ignored, that a town whose population remains stable still grows in size. Expanding incomes—in the developed countries, at least, although it holds good for the others too—mean that the space per citizen expands too. Here we see the decisive influence of the motor car on the development of the urban phenomenon. The need for larger accommodation is nothing beside the needs that the car—and public transport, of course — can satisfy. Here is an idea of the figures involved. In 1900, the town-dweller made do with 35 m² for all his needs; town planners today have to count on him wanting 100 m², which is three times as much. A modern city in a rich country whose population doubles in 25 years would have to increase its area if not by six (the older inhabitants being less demanding), then certainly by five. This is where the real extent of the land problem becomes clear.

The fourth reason for the difficulty of controlling our towns is, in essence, a political one. The town, with its problems of management and growth, is the favourite battle-ground for fights between the central and the local authorities and, more, between strong powers and weak ones.

In many countries, old and young, the division of the towns no longer has any real urbanistic or sociological meaning. Most of our conurbations have a number of municipal divisions. Although in Haussmann's time greater Paris covered 100 km², today it stretches over 1400 km² and has more than 200 communes. An authoritarian central power was recently required to bring the commune of Peking up to 15 000 km², thereby exceeding the size of the whole of the Paris area with all its communes (including the 1100 rural ones). New York covers parts of three different states. More than 1000 authorities may levy taxes there, but there is no general power. Lastly, the representatives who are closest to the

(1) Parc de La Villette, 211 avenue Jean Jaurès, 75019, Paris, France. Telephone 240 27 28.



A "favela" in Sao Paulo (Brazil). The shanty-towns grow in a wretched sprawl beside the planned, properly serviced residential districts

In many developed countries, as here in the USA, rich and poor rub shoulders. Can the Third World succeed in a different kind of urban development?



voters are afraid to tackle the land problem and the towns' financial problems force them to look to the state. Even in the USA, the modernization of the big centres would have happened all too slowly without federal aid, contrary to all tradition. And the new towns, granting the wish of Alphonse Allais for cities to be put in the country, pose virtually insoluble political and administrative problems.

These problems—and here we hark back to the first, fundamental reason—are only insoluble because of a failure to think about them and because of mistakenly tackling new problems with old ideas.

In taking stock of the problem, we look as though we are skirting it, afraid to tackle it. So let us take the plunge, and bravely. If we are to organize urban growth and, in the absence of power, reduce it overall, we have to work along two lines — regional development and the control of the urban phenomenon.

Regional development does not mean keeping people on the land when agricultural techniques no longer demand it. This is a field in which we have perhaps gone too far. Mankind is much more likely to be short of food than short of energy. In developed and developing countries alike, further thought is needed on the labour requirements of intensive crops.

The fact that 40-50 000 people still leave the land every year in western France is food for thought. Nevertheless, we have to be aware that keeping more people on the land would only have a very small effect on the urban problem. The scales are different. But the motor car, above all, is the greatest bringer of change and it even enables some farmers to live in town and go to their farm every morning...

Another, more or less spontaneous effect of regional development is the birth of towns based on the exploitation of natural resources — the ports, the mining towns, towns near sources of energy and industrial towns, a hundred of which have sprung up in less than 50 years.

Voluntarist regional development wants to go much further. It is aiming for a more judicious distribution of activity—work and now leisure activity as well—over the national territory. So the whole question now hangs on the meaning of the word judicious.

In many of the developed countries, many people have the rooted idea that they are entitled to a standard of living equal to the national average in the place they were born. This is political reason enough for the financial transfers the national government makes to the underprivileged areas. The whole question is one of knowing how far to go. There is no point in setting up industries or, more generally, activities that will never survive without support or imposing over-strong constraints on innovating firms opening in the metropolises and thereby giving them a reason for moving abroad...

The regional development policies in many of the developing countries are on their way to success and they will affect the growth of the megapolises in time.

The situation for the developing countries is quite different. For those of them that are very large, the climate, whether hot or cold, is often intolerable in certain regions. For the small countries, with oddly-traced frontiers, what is needed is the sort of regional development that covers a number of different countries. That does not yet seem a politically feasible proposition, as in the Mahgreb or French-speaking black Africa...

If the towns are to be controlled, we now know after so many failures that we need, at the same time, four combined sets of means. First of all, what is needed is a master development plan covering at least 20 years and an urban area (including rural surroundings) of at least 20 km. This plan includes the desirable changes to the old urban fabric, but above all it includes the major transport and other main structural facilities (business centres, airports, wide leisure parks) and areas for work and housing.

Then we need a land policy, i.e. legal and financial instruments that will enable us to avoid abusive specula-

tion and allow us to purchase land for urbanization within a reasonable time, concentrating our efforts on the major points of the master plan.

The third set of means includes the transport/traffic/vehicle policy. A proper marriage of town and vehicle is one of the major problems of urban life today — not forgetting the all-important question of analysing the nature and the aim of transport (work, leisure, transport of goods, etc.). This is a difficult point in view of the considerable financial outlay involved and the slow speed at which capital investment can be implemented. And lastly we have the housing policy (assisted or non-assisted), perhaps combined with an activities policy and with or without segregation. One thing is certain. The delays in productivity in the building industry meant, even in the age of triumphant liberalism (1890-1900), that there had to be a system of housing allowances, financed by the authorities, for people on low incomes. This kind of housing policy is today based on ground occupation plans which define the constructibility of each particular plot.

We are not really sure how to handle all these new instruments and they sometimes cause unpleasant surprises (the ground occupation plans, for example, meant that all the areas round villages in the Ile-de-France were uglier than before). Above all, there is still a lag in major investments in transport and this often spoils the best of town plans.

Lastly, if we are to dominate a fast-growing conurbation, there is a choice to make between new suburbs and new towns. The guiding principle depends, as we see it, on the size of the conurbation and on its prospects of expansion.

Any town will quite naturally tend to spread like a puddle of oil (putting out feelers first, then filling the gaps up and so on) and an increasing number of city-dwellers live a long way from any greenery or countryside. When a town has more than two million inhabitants, new towns seem a better way of expansion, particularly as compared to those huge conglomerations which often have no local facilities. These new towns are anti-suburbs, containing town centres that are big enough to prevent their inhabitants from going to the heart of the conurbation too often. There are a hundred or so new towns in the world today like this, following the schemes London began in 1945. France has nine of them, five in the Paris area. The state has to be obstinate to create them and there have to be considerable financial advances for the essential facilities. But these new towns have been an opportunity to try out a multitude of new and fascinating aspects of the art of town living in our time, although, as a number of communes are involved, their system of management is not right for our needs...

New suburbs and new towns do nothing to lessen the urgency of the recovery of our old town centres (which is particularly vital in the USA) or the modernization of some deplorable urban suburbs. The brake here is not a technical one. It has to do, above all, with the balancing of municipal budgets and, here again, with the way towns get split up into communes...

In rich nations, the towns are gradually being brought under control. But a new problem is emerging. It has

nothing to do with urbanism and we shall not therefore discuss it, but it is a serious problem and it is getting worse. It is that of the safety of the individual.

Urban development in the Third World is of quite another dimension and the despair there is apparently of quite another kind.

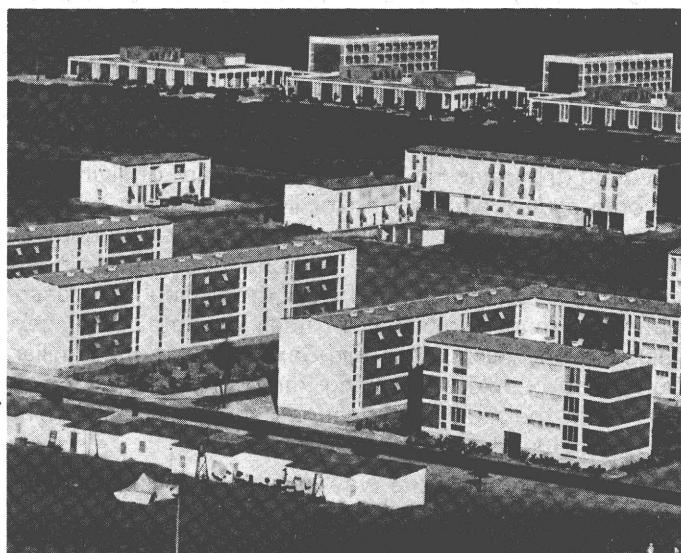
To remain brief, we shall not mention the relatively old parts of our cities where the rich classes live. Western principles have been applied here and in many cases, as in Abidjan and Rabat, for example, before being put to use in the colonial country itself. We shall be concentrating on the consequences of the explosive urban growth that has already been described and quantified at great length.

"It's expensive being poor", said a Philippino writer from Tondo. What does this mean? How many of what are still called human settlements are spontaneous, uncontrolled and unauthorized? This urban marginality, the shanty-towns as we call them (or the *bidonvilles*, *favelas* and *ciudades miserias* of other languages), apparently shelter one third of the population of the Third World. They are growing at the extraordinary rate of 15 % p.a. although the towns are not properly equipped: only an estimated 30 % of the housing there has any mains drainage.

Rejecting the Western stereotype

So there is a fundamental duality in the urban structures of the developing countries. And it is not with the Western stereotype that we will be able to settle this problem of the urban phenomenon on an international scale.

Certainly there can be no real solution unless the countries of the Third World gradually work their way to the point where wages are decent and then gradually improve. We cannot go on giving priority for external aid to industrial reform or the green revolution. At the World Bank, Robert McNamara fought to get (10 % of all) aid for urban improvement.



Documentation Française

View of Nouakchott, Mauritania — town planning which has neglected the two scourges of extreme heat and the sand storms which cover the insides of houses with drifts of dust

But where should we start? This is where we should completely reject the Western stereotype, privileging housing in a certain way. This stereotype has forced itself on the local authorities and on the people too through the mass media, as well as on the intellectual classes of the developed countries.

A non-Euclidian solution would involve combining large amounts of external aid with the work of these suburban and outer urban populations.

External aid should be concerned with solving problems of land ownership, shaping a basic urban network, keeping the roads and the town in general drained and providing suitable forms of transport between the shanty town and the rest. It is through the inhabitants building their own homes and making gradual improvements that needs must be met and people aided by technical assistance from architects who know no frontiers, the 'bare-foot' architects (trained mainly in the Netherlands today) and technicians of the same sort.

In France, the present problems in the building industry have made it fashionable for our constructors to work for export. This is certainly a way of earning foreign exchange but it is of no use at all when it comes to controlling the urban explosion of the Third World.

The UN conference on urban settlement in Vancouver in 1976 began by taking a broader view of the problem. Since 1979, a specialized UN agency, UNCHS (Centre for Human Settlement), has been working along the lines we have described and it will be making a global report on human settlement every five years.

"It would be giving up..."

The size of the urban phenomenon must fill us with dismay. We should be humble, but we should not give up. What we need is fearless humility.

The aims as far as the developed nations are concerned are becoming clear. The battle to achieve them has already commenced. What is at stake, to my mind, is something more far-reaching than the success of urbanization, of which the ecological movement is a clumsy reflexion. The whole of the population, its representatives and its government are beginning to understand that, after making progress with individual income, quality of life does not just come from seeing GNP improve. Devoting the mind to perfecting the art of living has become a duty and this art of living, pleasure which is essentially an individual thing, cannot exist without an increase in public services, without involvement in the organization of local life and without forming more associations. French individualism itself accepts these new values, with which the Anglo-Saxons are more familiar. Our young people are leaving Paris. They are taking an interest in the municipal elections and they are forming clubs of all kind.

Can this change in the way of looking at life continue, given the rise of the Third World which will be demanding that we provide greater means to get it out of trouble? That is the question.

The urban phenomenon in the developing countries underlines the full, cruel force of this issue. Even if the birth rate everywhere drops to 1 fairly fast, it will take



UNESCO - A. Tessore

Two kinds of housing in Fria, a mining town in Guinea: background, staff housing for an aluminium works. Urban planning can encourage the reduction of social discrimination

almost a century for the world population to stabilize, relatively, at around 9 000 million. But we cannot get away from the figures for the year 2000 and the organization or urban growth, even if Western models are rejected, cannot begin unless a great deal of financial aid can be poured in — and petroleum products should contribute to this.

But going beyond this financial challenge, the urban phenomenon continues, as we have seen, to pose an even greater challenge. It is an intellectual challenge to us all, to the leaders of the Third World, to the governments and public opinion in the other countries. If our still uncertain action is to be properly channelled, then we have to understand. And we, in France, have particular need to ponder the subject.

The chapels of rest of the Al Qarafa cemetery in Cairo provide a roof over the heads of a whole crowd of city-dwellers who have nowhere else to go. What a symbol! Because in our time life has overtaken death, it would be giving up if we, with our know-how, were unable to house the living elsewhere than in the house of the dead.

As Seneca said: "It is not because things are hard that we dare not do them. It is because we dare not do them that they are hard". ○ P.D.

Getting away from alien urban planning

The author of a major work on shanty-towns (1), Bernard Granotier gives his analysis of the phenomenon of urban concentration.

► *Apart from the familiar effects of rapid population growth and rural depopulation, which you describe in your book, what in your opinion are the other main factors resulting in urban concentration in the Third World?*

— I think there is also what has been called the demonstration effect, that is to say where a large number of non-industrialized countries, particularly those concerned with land development, copy the European model in an insufficiently critical way. Just as industrialization in Europe was accompanied by sudden urbanization, in a manner which was very dramatic, so many developing countries have adopted this same industrial pattern and are facing excessively rapid urban growth which they have difficulty in containing. One sees this in suburban planning architecture. There is in such a case a failure, maybe, to stand back and take a critical view of the European model. It would be a good thing, in view of all the current talk about development based on the needs of the beneficiaries, to take greater account of the fact that each country has its own architectural and urban planning tradition.

► *Considering the way in which the newly independent countries have begun to view the problem of development, do you think that the authorities could have foreseen the current phenomenon?*

— No, it would have been hard to imagine such dramatic urban growth. In all the towns and cities which I have visited in Africa south of the Sahara, the suburbs have expanded in a way which no one could have foreseen, in fact in a quite uncontrollable fashion. The situation is the same in both English-speaking and French-speaking Africa; it has been the same in countries which have opted for a freer development pattern and in those where economic planning has been tighter. Given this same situation from Mali to Tanzania, it must be assumed that it was genuinely not possible to foresee the trend, which has assumed such proportions that one is left facing a "fait accompli".

So, one is obliged now to invent or find solutions to a situation which has caught us all off our guard.

► *There are two types of solution, national and international. What can each developing country do at national level?*

— I believe that each country, and this concerns particularly the ACP states, must first of all consider the important findings of the world housing survey carried

out by the United Nations and the statistics produced by the World Bank. Housing consisting of large blocks of flats appropriate to middle-level incomes excludes virtually half the population.

The type of housing required should take into account in particular those arriving from the rural areas in conditions of great hardship. Experiments have been carried out which show that the choice is not merely between a large block of flats and a slum dwelling. There are intermediate, appropriate solutions.

A new sphere of cooperation

► *What measures can be taken internationally?*

— At international level one should be aware that a new sphere of cooperation emerged at the end of the 1970s. In United Nations terminology, habitat and human settlements drew the new forms of attention. A whole new sphere of international cooperation lies ahead. We are at the very beginning and breaking new ground. The United Nations has an environmental programme and a Centre for Human Settlements. I think that Europe, which is ahead in many fields, should now commit itself to further promoting this new concept of habitat and human settlements and accord more funds, more creative thinking and more human resources to this end.

► *Would you say housing should figure in future in cooperation between the Community and the ACP states?*

— Yes, I think that there is an enormous amount to be done in this field and there are great practical opportunities. Take training, for example. Why do we not systematically train architects, urban planners and technical experts in our European universities and technical colleges until such time as full training can be offered in the developing countries? Take the case of non-governmental organizations, which are really effective in the field. Why confine them to exclusively rural projects when there is also much work to be done in towns and semi-urban areas? Where people are living crowded together in totally unsatisfactory conditions, let the NGOs get to work. Take a third example. Why doesn't the EDF, instead of trailing in tow and contributing a little money to World Bank projects, initiate pilot projects of its own to rehabilitate insanitary housing or provide those on limited income with housing more appropriate to their needs? Training, non-governmental organizations, pilot projects wholly undertaken by the EDF—three possible areas of action for the years ahead.

The European Community is, with Stabex, out ahead of the United Nations, but international cooperation does not consist solely of trade and community dealing. As far as habitat and human settlements are concerned, I will not mince my words: the Community is seven years behind the United Nations, which has given the lead in this sphere. Minor things have been done here and there, but almost in a shamefaced way. I say that we should involve ourselves openly and boldly in the new international cooperation the field of habitat and human settle-

(1) "La Planète des bidonvilles". Editions du Seuil, 27, rue Jacob - 75007 Paris (France).

ments. It is incorrect to say that all problems are rural ones. We have no choice in having to deal with the massive numbers of people with housing problems in the large towns. We cannot make them go back to their villages. We cannot halt the migration and must therefore accept the "fait accompli" of towns with an exploding population.

So, the Community has fallen behind, particularly compared with the United Nations or even the Commonwealth. I am very well acquainted with the measures which have been taken by the Commonwealth Secretariat in London. We are lagging behind and I commend the *Courier* presenting a dossier on the subject. I note that a new convention is to be negotiated, providing an opportunity to make up the gap.

Motivation

► *You referred just now to intermediate solutions. What are they?*

— I think that if we are talking of solutions, we should acknowledge the work of a Third World architect, Hassan Fathi, who, back at the beginning of the 1950s, had a brilliant idea, namely to involve ordinary people in the building process. The theory was the work of Hassan Fathi; John Turner took up his idea and now it is recognized that nothing can be done without the involvement of those with insufficient income who live on the edges of the large towns and who look forward to moving into ready-to-occupy flat or housing estate accommodation. Participators' construction means that the authorities provide a site, divide it into lots, lay on services, build one or two rooms and install sanitary facilities; at this stage, the inhabitants, under supervision of architects and urban planners and assisted by their local associations and solidarity groups, become involved in the rest of the work, which entails finishing off their accommodation. The cost is therefore virtually half that of a conventional housing scheme. The people are motivated because they actually have a hand in the construction. It becomes clear that the most valuable part consists of the human assets and the human supportive fabric, which is much more highly developed than in Europe. One could almost reverse the roles and say that there is often underdevelopment in Europe on a human level, where people may live in excessive isolation and solitude, but that in the Third World there is almost overdevelopment, in the sense that people help each other and can count on communal support. These assets must be exploited.

I think it important to have the courage to say to governments: if you merely adopt the European model consisting of large blocks of flats, all the government budget will disappear in subsidies. You will be obliged to assist deprived families and, once again, all the country's resources will be used for this purpose. So, this is not realistic; an alternative must be found. The alternative consists of the intermediate solutions I have described.

An ACP development bank to help with housing?

► *The official financing institutions dealing in real estate loans primarily finance accommodation for people*

who have funds, these being mainly officials, who in turn are financed by the tax-payer. Do you think this type of financing could be reviewed on the grounds that it caters for a minority?

— We must come up with new ideas as far as methods of financing and access to credit are concerned. Yet here again there are possibilities. Experiments have been carried out in various countries outside the ACP group, such as the Philippines and India, involving loans at a very low rate of interest on sums which, in European eyes, seem very small, but which to needy families are a godsend and enable them to roll up their sleeves and help with the building of their own accommodation. These loans are for, perhaps, one, two or a maximum of three years and very few conditions are required of the recipient family.

The head of the family should have a job or else have title to the plot of land, and this is sufficient to set in train this type of loan. This is what happens at national level. At international level, Mr Poniatowski, chairman of the European Parliament's committee on development and cooperation, has asked that the Community should engage in activities of a development bank type, in a manner different from the European Investment Bank. If this project materializes, it would be appropriate that it should have a habitat and human settlements component.

► *It should be remembered that it was the ACP states which put forward the idea of an ACP development bank which would have the support of the Community and other states or financing bodies.*

— Just as the idea for intermediate solutions came to an architect in a Third World country, here is an idea which comes from the ACP states. In both cases, the starting point should be the needs concerned and not our own speculation. The needs are there and we must try to satisfy them.

► *All economic systems and ideological regimes are aware of the problem of housing. In your opinion, what part does the economic system, or the system of production, play in the housing crisis?*

— On a purely theoretical level, one must certainly agree and say that urbanization and land development are processes which unfold relatively independently of economic forces and of the decisions which seek to put order into such economic forces. In order to put order into the economy, some put their trust in market mechanisms, others in rigid planning and others still in flexible planning based on incentives. However, whatever the solutions and whatever the consequences of these economic forces, one finds that organization and land development are relatively autonomous; this means that in capitalist and socialist countries—or should one say those with liberal or rigidly planned economies—one finds the same dramatic growth in the case of large towns, the same incapacity to think in terms of new solutions and, above all, to apply them.

Nevertheless, fascinating experiments are being conducted in a number of ACP countries about which, in my opinion, not enough is said in Europe. One in which I

have a personal interest, having been and worked there, is Dodoma, in Tanzania. Here you have a government which is well known for its attempts to create enlightened socialism and which has to cope with the problems of a poor country. It is determined not to create another Brasilia, and the new capital being built will break with the dependence symbolized by Dar es-Salaam which is situated on the coast. Dodoma is sited right in the centre of the country as a sign of its intention to develop independently and according to its own principles. From the outset there has been recourse to intermediate solutions as a way of preventing the cancerous emergence of shanty-towns. The authorities have shunned the type of large concrete edifice designed by a famous architect. It has sought to ensure that proper accommodation be provided for all levels of the population and, unlike the case of the Brazilian capital, where 500 000 people are now living in shanty-towns, there is every chance that Dodoma is on the right track and in the process of creating something valuable and positive. In Nigeria a new capital is being built at Abuja in order to relieve Lagos, where forces of concentration have become overwhelming. These are extremely positive developments; they are creative steps which do not copy the European model and do not even follow the usual pattern found elsewhere in the Third World. They represent innovation from within the ACP states.

► *The growth of shanty-towns is an economic phenomenon. However, South Africa on its own has introduced a racial and discriminatory element into the natural desire for decent housing. You have been to South Africa to investigate this. What did you find?*

— I made a study trip to South Africa in March 1982 because, in France, I specialize in the question of immigration and I wanted to see with my own eyes the harm which the ugly doctrine of apartheid can do. I visited Soweto and saw the tension which persists, even seven years after the unfortunate riots of 1976. I saw the lamentable spectacle of Crossroads, a huge shanty-town on the outskirts of Cape Town. I saw the crazy results—and there is no other word to describe them—of deciding that Coloureds shall live here and Asians there, setting aside Bantustans for the Blacks, and believing that the Whites can sit back with a clear conscience in the areas they reserve for themselves. All this leads, in the short term, to the illusion that the problem has been solved and, in the long term, to explosive unrest.

Apartheid has highlighted cultural differences in the most negative way possible and has succeeded in suppressing them in the most barbarous and retrograde fashion because, under the pretext of respecting black cultural identity within the Bantustans, it has ensured that the white model, not to say the Boers' model, prevails almost exclusively. In a way that is both negative and disastrous, apartheid demonstrates the existence of another, more positive aspect: namely, that where different cultures meet, for example in sub-Saharan Africa, they do not, in the present state of things, fare equally well. Too little opportunity has been given for the people to express their native culture which, to use the language of psychoanalysis, has often been repressed and which is tending to reassert itself.

Assault by concrete

In 1978 I had a talk with former President Senghor and we had an absolutely fascinating discussion in which he told me that, for him, this awareness that each culture has a role to play in the universal cultural heritage did not derive exclusively from literature or folklore or from works of art; architecture, housing and urban planning were all part of this scheme and he would continue to apply this philosophy if he were still a public figure. These cultural differences are therefore something living and which should be expected to have an extremely practical impact on both a cultural and economic level. Attention must be paid to national and regional cultures and this means avoiding the European example of assault by concrete.

► *You are chairman of an international association which has its headquarters in Norway. What is its aim?*

— As a student—and during the years when I was doing fieldwork in Latin America, Africa, the Arab countries and South-East Asia I regarded myself as a student—I learned an enormous amount, from meetings with politicians and with the local inhabitants, of the problems which they experienced. And now I think I also have something to say here in Europe to people who see the Third World only in terms of pictures on television and charitable works, because charitable works alone are not sufficient.

Since January 1982 I have presided over an international association known as IOANE, which is a symbolic name denoting cooperation between the countries of Europe and between Europe and non-aligned countries of the Third World. The political aim of this association is that Europe, together with the non-aligned countries, should play a role independent of the two super-powers, the United States and the Soviet Union. We consider it vital to strengthen all forms of cooperation with the non-aligned countries and regard this as part of the destiny of the people of Europe today. It is essential to renounce neo-colonialist aspirations and see that our future in Europe is linked to that of the non-aligned countries. It is no doubt outside the scope of this interview to recall how many of the present world's misfortunes result from the share-out at Yalta and from the fact that the Russians and the Americans still tend rather to divide the cake up among themselves with, as one can see, the inevitable risk of war and senseless wastage. However, I will merely say that Europe must resolutely assume its responsibilities, seeing that it is in its own interests, and even part of its policy, to extend its hand further to the ACP states in the hope that they will reciprocate in a constructive and encouraging fashion. There is one event of particular importance coming up in March 1984, namely the renewal of the European Parliament. IOANE will be putting forward candidates in the 10 Community countries on the basis of the need to emphasize the importance of strengthening links within Europe, but also and more so, the need for fuller cooperation of a political sort between Europe and the vanguard of the non-aligned countries in the form of the ACP states, with which we already have economic and trading links, in other areas such as habitat and human settlements. ○

Interview by
LUCIEN PAGNI

The basics of good urban development

Bent KNAUER (*) and Hans P. STEENFOS (*)

The establishment of new settlements and cities has become a problem of major political significance for a number of governments in the developing countries.

There are many reasons why this problem has reached its present proportions.

- Large numbers of migrants are leaving rural areas attracted by industrial job opportunities in the big cities, despite the fact that industry can only employ a fraction of the migrants.
- Existing city infrastructure is insufficient to service the present population.
- Municipalities wish to relocate the inhabitants of shanty towns in new settlements, thus improving the general health standard, and prevent serious epidemics from spreading to the parent city.
- Authorities wish to change undesirable housing trends.
- The exorbitant population increase in some areas demands quick and efficient housing action.

For generations city planners and authorities have tried to find ways and means to combat this unfortunate trek from rural to urban areas.

Such attempts have so far been mostly unsuccessful

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even when they were based on improvements within the rural areas.

Thus it is apparently impossible to remove the evil at the root, and authorities are consequently forced to tackle the problems within the urban areas.

Requirements for new settlements

There are several requirements for new settlements which must be given serious consideration before large schemes are developed.

Firstly, a human dwelling must comply with local family patterns and customs. Time and again authorities have neglected this basic requirement. Industrialized building methods have been introduced, based on European practice. The results have often been that the lay-outs do not provide for the local family life, or the rents are so high that heavy government subsidies are required which just add another problem to the other burdens of the governments.

There must be job opportunities in sufficient numbers near the new settlements. If the inhabitants of a shanty town are simply relocated to the opposite side of the city, inhabitants will have to travel between their new home and their job. This further overloads the public transportation system and imposes heavy extra financial burdens upon the individual families.

New settlements must be sufficiently serviced by infrastructure and public facilities such as schools, kindergartens, places of religious worship, hospitals, clinics, shops and recreational centres.

One of the major problems is to prevent urbanization from encroaching on arable land.

Two aspects of Zimbabwe: a domestic interior in Bulawayo and a view of the capital, Harare. An island of good living in a country where equitable land distribution is a major problem. A certain idea of modern urban life and the lack of security in land tenure can contribute to the spread of shanty-towns



If such main requirements are not met, new settlements will soon deteriorate, become slums and eventually nourish political unrest or extremism. Thus the study, planning and development of new settlements represent areas of extreme difficulty and require the availability of experts of diversified skills and experience.

Planning new settlements

City planning must be a continuous process. But planning is only the first step in the long process of city development. The implementation of plans is a political issue and thus subject to changing political trends. Many settlement schemes have been dormant for years, due to the absence of political decisions or lack of finance. Concurrently the gap between plans and requirements has grown out of proportion. Realistic city planning and the political process must therefore be intimately connected in order to facilitate controlled expansion of the cities.

All planning starts with the identification of the problem.

Why is it necessary to establish a new settlement?

Can an undesirable migration from rural areas to a large city be partly stopped or redirected to less populated urban areas providing sufficient local job opportunities?

Which are the dimensions of the problem in the short and long terms?

How is the problem related to other governmental development plans?

These are some of the questions city planning departments must consider.

Objectives

With the problems identified, the objectives of the new settlement must be formulated. The objectives express the short and long-term targets of the scheme according to an assessment of priorities, existing conditions and development potentials.

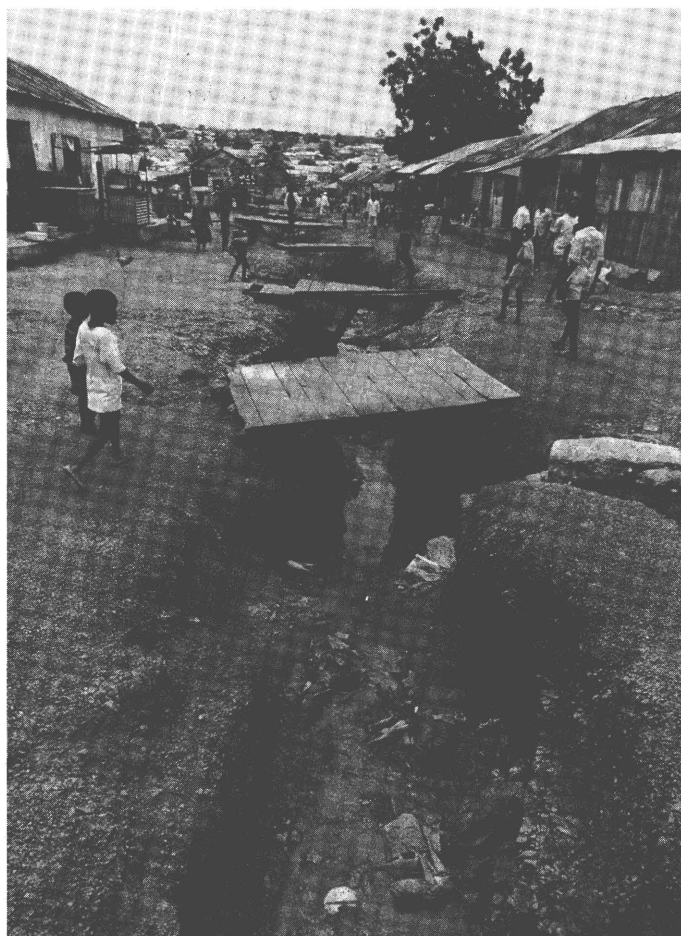
Objective components may include:

- Steering instruments to limit and direct urban development towards alternative locations.
- The development of a master plan to guide the capacity, location and phasing of urban settlements.
- A structure plan for the development of vacant sites and the rehabilitation of existing built-up areas.
- Implementation of new settlements.
- Coordination of the existing and new developments within the planning area.
- A housing strategy.

It is beyond the scope of this article to describe the entire planning process, but two areas of the process shall be outlined: management and supervision of the plan and the housing strategy.

Management and supervision

It is the experience from many cities that once city plans and plans for new settlements have been finalized and approved by higher authorities, the management and control of the implementation is often neglected.



FAO - F. Botts

In Freetown, Sierra Leone. All African countries need town planning and urban improvement policies

Soon informal housing takes the lead, supported by investors whose intentions are not always identical to those of the authorities.

It appears that building codes and regulations are frequently violated and building collapses, involving loss of human lives, are not uncommon.

In order to implement new settlement in an orderly and timely manner, an organization must be entrusted with the management of the plans.

Among the duties of such an organization are:

- Prequalification of consultants and contractors.
- Preparation and issue of tender documents.
- Evaluation of bids and conclusion of contracts.
- Structural design review of private construction schemes and subsequent issue of building permits.
- Preparation of budgets and cost control.
- Supervision (in terms of time, money and quality) of public and private construction works.

Obviously the staffing of this type of organization depends on the availability of well-educated and experienced professionals. Although it is possible to recruit personnel with an adequate basic education, they often lack practical experience.

This condition may be somewhat remedied by appointing consulting companies as in-house consultants for the authorities and designating the local professionals as counterparts for the foreign consultants.

Housing strategy

A housing strategy forms the guiding principles for the construction of dwellings of a new settlement. Basically, the strategy provides the answers to the following questions:

- **what** is going to be built?
- **how** is the construction work accomplished?
- **when** shall the settlement be ready for occupation?
- **who** will be doing the construction works?

To answer the first, extremely important, question the socio-economical patterns of the inhabitants must be identified.



ties—not even in richer societies—cannot afford to provide dwellings for *all* the new settlers.

To prevent a new large settlement from becoming just another shanty-town, however, and to ensure that the settlement is developed in an orderly and manageable way, the authorities prepare the area for human habitation.

Main roads and streets are constructed, sewage and electric power is provided for the area and installed at each of the parcels into which the settlement is divided.

The idea is that the new settlers can acquire the par-



UN 83187

Building housing in the Seychelles (left) and in Malawi: local materials and labour, but lack of basic infrastructure

Functional requirements

The size of the family and their way of life is one determinant. The other important determinant is what the family can afford in terms of rent. The final costs of the scheme depend heavily on the price of land and the cost of developing the land, including infrastructure and services.

If the total development costs are high, authorities will have to consider ways to reduce the rent. Vertical expansion rather than horizontal expansion might help. Otherwise a decrease of quality or degree of finish may be considered. State subsidies is another way to lower the rent but that may hamper other governmental development plans.

Finally, technical specifications based on the functional requirements are prepared. This is instrumental for the preparation of tender documents or guiding principles for private builders.

Construction methods

The second question poses a number of problems, of which the construction method probably is the most important.

Although "sites and services" cannot be termed a construction method, it certainly is a procedure by which the basic requirement of providing cheap dwellings for the inhabitants are met while at the same time maintaining a good infrastructural standard.

The rationale behind the procedure is that the authori-

ties at very modest costs, but that they have to build their own houses. It is of course mandatory that certain rules and regulations are laid down for the "construction" of the buildings and that the authorities are in a position to impose these rules. Therefore some authorities offer technical guidance for the builders or even provide cheap building materials.

A recent development of the sites and services procedure is to provide a "housing core" on each plot. The core unit usually is a precast panel with embedded water, sewage and electricity installations. The owner will expand his house from the core unit in accordance with his own requirements. The manufacture of the core unit can be accomplished by means of a small semi-mobile field plant. When core units for one settlement have been produced the field factory is dismantled and transported to another site.

Basically a fairly simple procedure, a sites and services project still takes time to plan and implement. Thus tight scheduling of the entire operation is necessary in order that the settlers start to occupy their parcels. Public services must also be planned and staffed ready to provide for the basic needs of the migrants.

Production of core units is the first step towards full prefabrication of large panels.

Industrialization

If a government decides to introduce full prefabrication, which has been successfully utilized in the West for many years, it must be aware that this building method

depends heavily on the capability of the surrounding industrial environment.

There must be suppliers to provide cement, aggregates, rebars and a variety of cast-in components which correspond to detailed technical specifications. The operation and maintenance of the factory requires qualified managers and well-trained workers.

Some governments are surprised to find that the price per square metre built area initially achieved does not correspond to the European price level. But it must be borne in mind that prefabrication—like any other industrial process—is based on repetition, and that time consumption in the initial production is high but decreases as workers and staff develop their skills by performing the same operation continuously. Once the skill has been accomplished, housing units can be provided quickly and at reasonably low prices.

It is important to note that on-site activities must be geared to the production rate of the factory. If this is not the case the factory stockyard will soon be saturated and production must stop. It should also be noted that the method is equipment extensive and thus has little to offer if unemployment is a major problem in a country.

Again it must be stressed that thorough overall planning and supervision is a must if new settlement plans are to be successfully implemented. There are sad examples of large building schemes where all housing blocks were completed ahead of the completion of infrastructure and installation of utilities, thus preventing the occupation of the dwellings.

Logistics

The logistics of large construction jobs is another bottleneck. Continuous production—particularly when prefabrication is involved—requires that the flow of materials through the production system is smooth and unobstructed. Materials and components must be delivered to the factory or the site in accordance with production plans. Quality of the goods shall be compatible with technical specifications or international standards. Even small discrepancies in quality or delivery can cause serious production delays. Naturally, domestic supply sources will often be preferred as lack of convertible currencies prohibits importation, or because the promotion of the indigenous industry is a major political issue. Regardless of the reason, technical support and guidance will most probably be needed to improve the output quality- and quantity-wise from suppliers of critical items. Standardization and modular coordination should be considered as a long-term policy to improve the output of domestic suppliers.

Human resources

Finally, no industrialization is possible without the availability of human resources. Traditional building methods require craftsmen with high levels of skill. To train such craftsmen a country needs training centres, instructors and instructional software. A 4-year basic training period combined with several on-the-job training periods is normally considered necessary in developed countries. But in some developing countries this kind of training does not exist. The overall quality of traditional building methods

depends heavily on the skills of the craftsmen. Consequently, if their levels of skill are inferior, the resultant construction quality will be poor. It is one of the advantages of industrialized building methods that unskilled workers can be trained to perform a specialized operation in a relatively short time.

The overall quality of industrialized building depends primarily on the design and on the manufacturing equipment. Consequently the training of designers (architects and engineers) and of production managers becomes a major problem. This is accomplished partly by post graduate training overseas or nationally and partly by including training obligations in contracts with equipment suppliers. The use of consultants to formulate and negotiate such training components is often a very good investment.



Basic infrastructure should be an integral part of urban development

The need for planning

Urbanization is not a very complicated matter if plans and budgets go hand in hand and if there is the necessary time.

This is unfortunately not always the case in the developing countries. The mere dimensions of some of the urbanization problems leave city planners in utter despair and somewhat hesitant to embark on the planning process.

But even if the problems seem impossible to solve, at least a simple sites and services project should be launched, identifying and reclaiming the area and planning the supply and transport structure within the area before settlers are allowed into the settlement.

Gradually, when funds are allocated, the completion of the project follows in accordance with a phased plan reflecting the priorities of the most necessary services.

Total urbanization is quite expensive even if the authorities do not finance the construction of the dwellings but simply provide sites and services.

Much can be accomplished, however, if city planning is started in time and if migrants are allowed only into planned areas which gradually can be developed into human townships.

Planning in itself—correctly coordinated with authorities and consultants—is not very expensive. But it is an absolutely necessary prerequisite if urbanization meeting simple human needs is to succeed. ○ B.K. & H.P.S.

From central provision to local enablement

New directions for housing policies

by John F. C. TURNER (*)

Speaking to those with responsibilities for housing policy and its implementation, Dr Otto Koenigsberger says that "if government is to improve a low-income majority's housing conditions then it must not build houses". Knowing that Professor Emeritus Koenigsberger is one of the most experienced and distinguished authorities in the field today, this statement surprises many of those mostly senior government officials from Third World countries who attend his seminars and lectures at the Development Planning Unit (University College London). Perhaps most still take it for granted that government housing policy has to do mainly with the provision of houses. As one who has learned at great deal from Dr Koenigsberger and who shares his view, this article summarises my own interpretation of the new vision of development as it is becoming manifest in newly emerging policies on what is better called Habitat—the social and economic as well as physical shelter essential for well-being.

Three thresholds

The widespread and accelerating withdrawal by governments from attempts to house low-income majorities directly, and the search for more practical and effective alternatives, can be seen clearly in perspective: the present threshold of policy change is the third in recent times. The first threshold was crossed in most European countries after the First World War, following the failures of commercial provision for lower-income populations and their rising expectations and demands. The intervention of the state as an alternative developer and landlord or, at least, principal promoter of low and moderate-income housing, has led to major material improvements in the highly industrialized, high-income countries. The newly industrializing and often newly independent and rapidly urbanizing low-income countries arrived at this first threshold only after the Second World War. Understandably influenced by their ex-colonists or by the general pattern and forms of urban-industrial change, it is not surprising that the radical differences of context were not sufficiently taken into account by governments at a time when a "take-off" fuelled by urban-industrial development was confidently expected by almost everyone. But the high costs and administrative demands of state housing provision soon led some governments with large low-income populations (and, therefore, very low per capita budgets, as Koenigsberger reminds us) to the second threshold of policy change: a recognition of the fact that only very small proportions of the rapidly growing

low-income populations can be housed by low-income governments. This has led to a still widening shift away from the direct construction of ready-to-occupy or turn-key housing schemes to programmes with an emphasis on land tenure and building sites, together with services.

I observed and participated in these changes in Peru, one of the first to undergo them. By the time I arrived there early in 1957, it was already obvious that public housing policies had been overwhelmed by the direct action of low-income people who had already become the principal city-builders: we calculated that while state housing provision during the previous decade amounted to less than one per cent of all new dwellings, in spite of budget allocations of 5 % or more, the people had built about two-thirds—at least 60 % and perhaps as much as 70 %. Of course the standards achieved in these *pueblos jóvenes* (literally, "young towns"), as they later came to be known, was much lower, anyway initially. But these squatter settlers on marginal, publicly owned land, obtained the essentials: secure (de facto) tenure of adequate building plots (usually with 8 metre frontages and 16 to 20 metres deep in regular blocks planned by the squatters themselves); although they would usually have to buy water of dubious provenance, delivered by tanker lorries or hand carts for building as well as domestic use, most households could afford to build their own homes, little by little and, eventually, to quite acceptable modern space and construction standards. With all their shortcomings, these self-organized, self-built and self-managed developments were real communities generating many income-earning activities—unlike the state-provided housing projects, which proved to be continuing drains of scarce resources. By 1961 the Peruvian government had passed a law legitimizing the tenure of occupied plots in improveable settlements; improvement programmes to upgrade them with basic services were also initiated that year, together with government-sponsored schemes providing sites, even without services, initially, in order to anticipate further squatting by providing the essentials at prices the people could afford.

Even in Peru this second threshold has yet to be fully accepted and crossed, as there are strong resistances from those with vested interests in the earlier models: these are far more attractive to the professionals and politicians who gain from them without having to live in them or pay for them. Those who can afford modern standards of living, and who have a disproportionate influence on government, tend to be peculiarly sensitive to the sight of what they regard as "slums", even if these are really long-term building sites. And even those who have moved "up" from low-income origins are peculiarly insensitive to the real needs and priorities of ordinary people, on whom they tend to impose their own values matching quite different conditions and situations. It is not surprising, therefore, to see how long it is taking so many governments to cross this second threshold, from pre-packaged direct construction programmes to programmes based on the provision of tenure or new sites and basic services—in spite of their promotion by

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ICEF

Squatters in the outskirts of Lima (Peru). To combat squatting, the government authorities can promote designated housing sites, delegate legal powers to regional authorities and back them financially. Local housing preferences can then be encouraged under local authority

the United Nations and other international organizations such as the World Bank, which had adopted the new policy by 1971, 10 years after its introduction by Peru. Peru was not the only pioneering country, of course; in Zambia, for instance, the city government of Lusaka has been developing a similar policy for the past decade and there are now many instructive cases of "service" programmes in other African countries, from Botswana to the Sudan to Senegal. (I refer to sites, services and settlement up-grading programmes as "service programmes" in order to distinguish them from those which supply completed schemes with finished dwellings—these I refer to as "turn-key project programmes".)

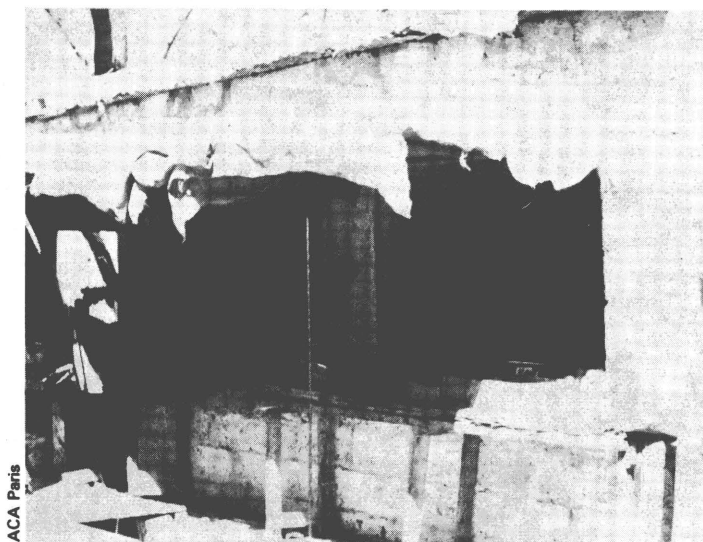
By 1981, however, a third threshold was already visible to some, especially to those who could observe the overall scale of these new and improved service programmes in relation to the continuing growth of the already overwhelming demand in the rapidly urbanizing Third World. Even though the service programmes may have increased the effectiveness of government action several times over, they are still far too limited in overall national scale. While impacts on some major cities have been considerable, as in Jakarta, Indonesia, where over two million Kampong (or urban village) dwellers' conditions have been greatly improved during the past decade, this is still a small proportion of total needs in the whole nation (of nearly 200 millions), which has grown by some 20 millions over that period.

So far, the ways and means of scaling up service programmes and of replicating them on a sufficient scale have eluded the national and international agencies seeking them. I share the views of an increasing number within these agencies: that we are at another threshold of policy change—from service programmes to other kinds of government intervention which increase local access to basic resources and the freedom to use what they already have.

What housing policy?

Before naming and describing the next policy development, a word of warning: those with vested interests in the turn-key project kinds will seize on any criticisms of service programmes in order to boost support for their own preferences. It is more than likely that, in most if not all contexts, the changeover from turn-key project to service programmes is a prerequisite step toward the next development. The argument of this article must not be used as a pretext for slowing or closing down the very real improvements already widely introduced by the many kinds of service programmes, from the most conservative in which "core houses" are provided to the most far-reaching (and effective) in which only sites are provided, at first, or, where these already exist and are occupied, only the most urgently needed utilities. All kinds of service programmes can be the necessary training grounds for the orientation of agency personnel, while they also provide opportunities for experimenting with and developing institutions and procedures for the next development.

The courses of action, or programmes, that governments must take in order to increase personal and local access to resources, along with the freedom to use them in personally and locally appropriate ways, are of a quite different kind. They are essentially institutional actions: changes in the law and regulations governing housing, building and planning; changes in the administration of rules and regulations; changes in the ways in which funds are disbursed and in which credit is generated; and, of course, the changes in the limits between spheres of decision-making and responsibilities between the different actors or sectors involved. The newly emerging action programmes are composites of complementary institutional changes which only governments can authorise, and of local action which only local organ-



Building in the fifth arrondissement of Nouakchott (Mauritania), a sprawl of poverty with "houses" made of cardboard

izations have the capacity to carry out economically. So the new generation of policies will not be based on government programmes at all, in the conventional sense: they will be based on locally self-determined, self-organized and self-managed programmes by the people who need the goods and services that they effectively demand. Government acts will be in response to these demands and must also anticipate and stimulate them. These will be primarily legislative acts and administrative actions: acts of parliaments or central governments administered by decentralized agencies of local government as, of course, actually occurs conventionally in some sectors, in line with the principles of democratic government. I therefore refer to the instruments of the third and up-coming policies as *enabling actions* (for locally determined programmes).

"The poor have done far more for themselves than the better-off have done for them"

The key premise for this argument is identified by the above reference to "local action which only local organizations have the capacity to carry out economically". The lesson for all contexts in the experience of direct action by the millions of ordinary people housing themselves, especially those on the peripheries of cities in rapidly urbanizing countries, is at last beginning to be understood: in spite of all the constraints imposed, sometimes violently by police actions, and despite the consequent distortions of forms and procedures, the poor have done far more for themselves, in absolute terms, than the better off have done for them; and, relatively, they have done vastly more in proportion to the resources used. The overall task of building a sustainable society cannot be achieved without a vast economy of resource use: unless we learn to do very much more with the same or even fewer resources that we rich actually use—and largely abuse and waste—there can be no liveable future. The wealthier or the more powerful we may be, the more we have to learn from the poor and the

relatively, or formally, powerless. In real terms they have shown that they possess far more real authority when it comes down to the basic facts of life, such as building, improving and caring for homes and neighbourhoods.

The need of a new balance

It must not be thought that this means that every family or household should build its own home, let alone work physically and collectively to install or improve neighbourhood services and amenities. While everyone and every voluntary association of people must be free to do what they are able and willing to do for the improvement of their own homes and neighbourhoods, the obligation to take all the responsibility and do all the work would be an absurdly impractical and unacceptable imposition.

The practical outcome of the necessary changes summarised in this article will be the up-dating and adaptation to locally and regionally current conditions of traditional systems of local planning, building and maintenance of dwelling environments (where a great deal of production and service activities are also carried on) if they are not artificially segregated). Historically normal systems are not predominantly capitalistic, they are not mere financial investments for profit, nor are they welfare state services. Traditionally and necessarily, if they are to be properly adapted to local conditions and needs and if they are to be economic and affordable, localities are built up and maintained by many local organisations and specialists with whom residents or would-be residents negotiate.

The greater the degree of equality of access to land and existing buildings, the larger the proportion of the population who can participate—and the fact that this is not a utopian idea but a practical reality is amply demonstrated by vast numbers of people who have organized themselves to take and develop land independently of both the commercial market and the state. But this does not mean that they can be or should be fully independent or self-sufficient. On the contrary, if self-organizing and self-managing communities are to achieve and maintain standards which all should enjoy, there must be cooperation with both market and state forces. In other words, a new balance is needed; one in which the locally predominant decision-makers are both non-commercial (or only at the family or very local business level) and non-governmental—in future, the Third or Community Sector must be in charge at the local level.

As suggested by the precedents set by millions of low-income people in many parts of the world, there are clear indications of the actions which governments can and must take in order to ensure the improvement of the majorities' housing and living conditions. There are also many precedents provided by government actions in response to local demands, as in the above-mentioned cases in Peru and Zambia. The continuing tragedy will only become ever-more acute until perceptions change and advantage can be taken of the immense potential that there is in almost every apparently desperate situation. Of course there are other barriers, but none is so great as misunderstanding and consequent mis-statements of the problem. ○ J.T.

Essential approaches to low-cost housing

by Daniel BIAU (*)

An international colloquium on low-cost housing in the developing countries was held in the UNESCO building in Paris on 25-27 January 1983. On the initiative of three French organizations—the Plan Construction, the Centre Scientifique et Technique du Bâtiment and the Ecole Nationale des Ponts et Chaussées—400 delegates from 45 countries discussed the materials, construction techniques and components that are suitable for low-cost housing.

A certain number of technical lessons can be learned from the different sessions of the colloquium and a general approach to the problems of putting up low-cost housing can also be derived.

This article deals with urban areas in the developing countries, where populations are expanding by about 40 million a year and the shortage of durable housing is particularly acute.

Two types of production

There are two main sides to urban housing construction in the developing countries.

There are local firms, working officially and complying with technical regulations (on standards) and social rulings (on wages, social charges and taxation). This is the modern sector.

And there are craftsmen, not covered by the regulations, who put up individual houses for individual customers. This is the informal sector. These craftsmen are often paid per job—hence the name piece-workers—and the materials are supplied by the customer, who does not hesitate to lend a hand himself. But the piece-worker may also be employed by a firm, a sub-contractor of another firm, a boss taking on workmen of his own and so on, and this mobility encourages the spread of technology from the modern to the informal sector.

The piece-worker gets minimal payment and has no management costs to pay, so working-class families (those with some savings, the poorest people being in rented accommodation) and some of the better-off groups of society are interested. However, the worker cannot handle large-scale programmes because of his limited means and lack of official recognition.

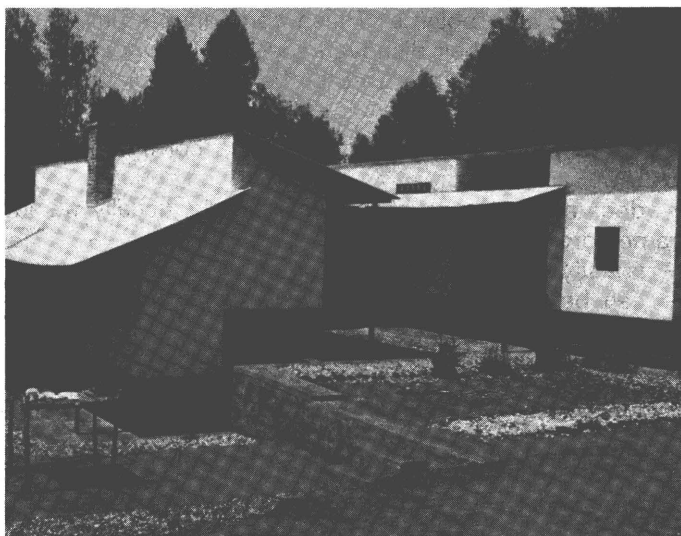
Organizing craftsmen to work on low-cost housing programmes seems to be an interesting idea, although there are a number of problems to be coped with: recognition of piece-workers, technical support, supply of materials and quality control.

(*) The author, a civil engineer and the holder of a doctorate in sociology, is in charge of Rexcop, the French cooperation research and experiment programme.

Unity of technique

In the developing countries, locally-produced materials are being used less and less. This is particularly evident in the case of roofing, because corrugated iron is extending its hegemony even to the rural world. Although earth and wood are still the predominant materials for walls in many a town, the tendency to use cement blocks (sometimes baked brick) is very apparent, even in the informal sector. In many countries, more than 50 % of cement is used for this purpose.

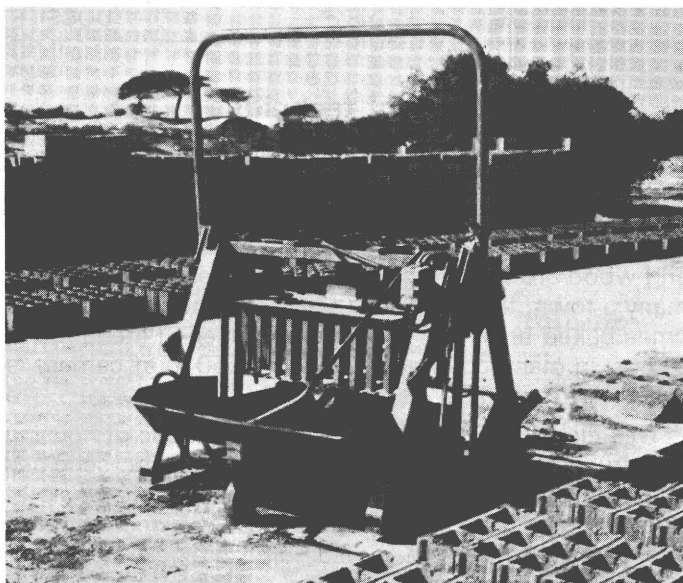
This technical convergence of two methods of housing construction, which is ample justification for schemes involving such things as hydraulic bonding materials at other stages in the process, should not hide the differences between craftsman-made breeze blocks and modern ones (there may be a difference in cement content of 100-300 kg per m³) and between "cigarette-paper" and durable corrugated iron (which may be three times thicker in some cases than in others). This is by no means to say that the craft sector makes maximum savings on the technology of the modern sector. Low-cement breeze blocks can in fact be used to fill slightly over-sized reinforced concrete frames.



Corrugated iron suits the generally mild climate of Rwanda and is reasonably well adapted to this part of Africa, even if it is mostly made in other countries

So new materials and techniques seem to have to come through the modern sector and it seems very difficult to develop innovations in the informal sector from the start. However, it would still be desirable for this latter sector to be given support with training and technical rationalization.

It is also worth noting that building materials of equivalent quality often cost more in the craft sector than in the modern one, because of all the middlemen involved and because of the craftsmen's poorer powers of negotiation (scattered purchasing, expensive credit facilities, etc.). This leads to a search for poorer rather than equivalent quality and to black market supplies. The organization of material distribution networks could cut out this kind of thing.



Rexcoop - Paris

Cement blocks (here in Senegal) are simply made, require little capital investment and can be used for cheap, durable housing

Technico-economic problems

The increasing use of steel sheeting for roofs and concrete blocks for walls is not without causing some technico-economic problems. These components have their advantages and their disadvantages, which vary according to whether they are used in the modern or the informal sector.

The advantages of using galvanized corrugated steel for roofs are that it:

- does not weigh much, so only simple (usually wood) frames are required;
- is easy to transport;
- can be placed and nailed into position by workers with few qualifications;
- costs relatively little overall (FF 65 per m² in a recent scheme in Bamako) because of the three previous assets;
- can be used to construct roofs with wide overhangs.

The technical drawbacks are that:

- galvanization is often inadequate (no controls), so there is a problem of resistance in the longer term, particularly in humid climates;
- as the thickness of the sheets is not always monitored, over-thin pieces are distorted from the outset;
- it is very noisy in heavy rain;
- light roofing of this kind is very susceptible to wind;
- if there is no ventilated area between the roof and the ceiling, a considerable amount of heat is radiated.

These drawbacks must be avoided by monitoring the galvanization process and the thickness of the sheeting, improving the fixing (sheeting to frame and frame to walls) and ensuring there is a false ceiling with proper ventilation of the space in between.

There are two macro-economic points to note:

1. In all but one or two countries which produce steel, the corrugated sheeting usually has to be imported (often in rolls and shaped on the spot).

2. The material is an industrial one which is non-labour intensive.

These two facts have to be taken into account at national level. But the users tend to make their choice in the light of quality and price, so a compromise has to be found between national and individual interests.

The concrete blocks also pose economic problems when the cement has to be imported or when it is made on the spot with imported energy. In some countries, a shortage of binding materials is an additional problem.

But blocks may be made with a wide range of materials, ranging from the rudimentary moulds of the informal sector to the presses of the modern sector. This is an important advantage, particularly since it only needs rudimentary equipment to put the blocks in position. However, the irregular dimensions of certain breeze blocks and the poor qualifications of the people positioning them often means that too much mortar is used both between the blocks and for the surfacing.

The cost of rendering tends to be high and can be as much as 50% of the cost of the masonry. Given that masonry accounts for more than half the costs of construction in very low-cost housing, the importance of the manufacture and distribution of cement, and of vocational training, is clear.

Alternatives

The various problems outlined above have led researchers and builders to look at substitute materials.

The discussion about cement turns on the best size for cement factories, and on altering investment and transport costs so as to cut the price of cement to the user. There is also a question of reducing the energy consumed during manufacture and, therefore, of using bonding materials that require less energy.

There are modern alternatives to corrugated steel in roofing and some of them (aluminium sheeting in Cameroon, asbestos and cement plates in Senegal, terracotta tiles, etc.) are very common. Others, such as treated and compressed panels of vegetable matter and plaster domes, are as yet unknown on a wide scale.

The main obstacle to the development of these alternatives tends to be an economic one. Without encouragement from the authorities (warranted in particular by the need for technological diversification), these materials will not find outlets unless they are clearly a better proposition, both quality and price-wise, than steel sheeting—which can often be a problem.

There are a number of ways of building walls, too. Wood can be used, as can plaster, thin cement sheets and unbaked earth. It is interesting to look at the last on this list, a material that is provoking a certain amount of thought in the building industry today. One or two projects in Africa have improved the image of earth as a building material, which can be used, if certain precautions are taken, for long-lasting housing. The best-known method (compressed earth bricks stabilized with cement) has proved its reliability. However, this modern way of using earth has come up against a number of difficulties:

- Building with compressed earth bricks is an innovation as far as traditional (daub and adobe) and conventional

(breeze blocks) building is concerned. It requires workers to be qualified to do the job, i.e. they must have had training, so there is a higher percentage of labour costs in the overall price of earth bricks than when cement blocks or cement are used, at the outset at least.

— Stabilization with 4-8 % cement pushes up the cost of a square metre of earth brick (filled) to the same level as the cost of a m² of concrete blocks (unfilled), except when there is a shortage of bonding materials for concrete. So an attempt must be made to avoid stabilizing with cement (or bricks must be made hollow) if compressed earth bricks are to remain competitive. An effort should also be made with the protection of the materials (foundations, overhanging roofs and rendering).

— If no suitable (as regards granularity, plasticity and compactibility) earth is available near the site, earth will not be an economic proposition because of the transport costs.

— Lastly, large-scale production means mechanized presses that can turn out several thousand bricks a day. And this means a certain amount of investment (around FF 55 000 for a press) that is hard to manage in the informal sector.

So it would appear that the barriers to the spread of earth bricks are more economic than technical or sociological—contrary to what a superficial analysis might suggest.

This leads to the conclusion that the alternatives to corrugated metal and concrete blocks will not develop spontaneously. The authorities need to intervene, basing their action, as a matter of priority, on the modern sector. They alone are able to grasp what is at stake at the macro-economic level and as far as the balance of payments and job creation are concerned.

Testing the appropriate techniques

The above considerations lead to a consideration of what the suitable building techniques might be.

This discussion really began about 10 years ago and it is to be hoped that it continues on the basis of serious arguments and systematic assessment.

The starting point was the realization that the cities of the Third World were turning more and more into shanty towns and the corollary that the housing supply was inadequate. A simple set of criteria could be used to get us beyond the stage of discussion.

The criteria for defining appropriate technology can be grouped into two categories, those dealing with supply and those dealing with demand. Let us summarize them briefly.

Supply divides into available resources, which are:

- human (jobs and qualifications);
- material (raw materials, energy and production, transport and site equipment).

These resources can also usually be divided into local ones and imported ones.

Another aspect of supply is the strategy of the people involved in housing production, i.e.:

- the direct producers (workers and piece-workers) interested in increasing their income;



Rexcoop - Paris/J. Preuss

Testing alternative techniques: a house being built in Mauritania as an appropriate technology trial

- the operators (contractors, manufacturers and dealers), who intend capitalizing on their investments;
- the authorities, who may intervene at different levels (land ownership, finance, taxation and rules and regulations).

It is clear that these people do not all have the same interests, but it is also clear that no technology will be able to develop as long as there are no sufficiently powerful economic operators who find the field worthwhile.

Demand can also be divided into the resources (solvency) and aspirations (having a lasting, comfortable home that suits one's way of life, etc.) of the various social groups.

Once the criteria for supply and demand have been clearly listed, the discussion should then move on to how important they are in the different contexts. This is probably where objectivity stops, so we shall confine ourselves to making one suggestion.

In many international meetings, the problem of insufficient housing is dealt with solely from the point of view of demand, and of solvency in particular. Might it not be a more realistic proposition to start with supply, particularly the tactics of the people who are involved, with a view to determining the priorities, choosing the best technical solutions and making housing production dynamic?

This leads us to a word about the links between the research into, experiment with and large-scale development of building materials and techniques.

There is, as we know, a good deal of research into appropriate technology that never gets past the laboratory door, although some of it, of course, does yield very interesting results. Should we lament the fact or try and decide where the barriers to innovation lie?

As we see it, the barriers often have to do with the strategies, in all their complexity, of the people concerned with housing production. This is why large-scale experiments actually involving these people are required to assess the future of materials and techniques.

o D.B.

Shelter-Afrique: new lifeline for Africa's housing

by John LEECH (*)

One of the scarcest commodities in developing countries is finance for housing. Elsewhere it is a by-product of sophisticated financial institutions and an aggressive construction sector. Africa in particular has neither. Yet the demand for housing, especially at the lower income levels, is pressing and insatiable.

Nor is long-term finance the only ingredient. Technical capacity is needed to develop schemes which are both durable and affordable. Least-cost solutions must be combined with adequate standards and security for long-term mortgage loans or extended rental recoveries. More crucially still, the sound operation of housing institutions requires a high degree of skill and experience.

An institution aiming to speed the transfer of funds and expertise to national housing programmes throughout Africa has recently been established, largely on the initiative of the African Development Bank (ADB) and 23 subscribing African governments. "Shelter-Afrique" (Company for Habitat and Housing in Africa) was incorporated at the end of last year; the second meeting of its board was held in Nairobi, its headquarters, on 16th May. With the appointment at that meeting of Mr S.P.O. Fortune Ebie, currently general manager of the Nigerian Federal Housing Authority, as its managing director Shelter-Afrique should become fully operational before the end of 1983.

"One of the highest social priorities"

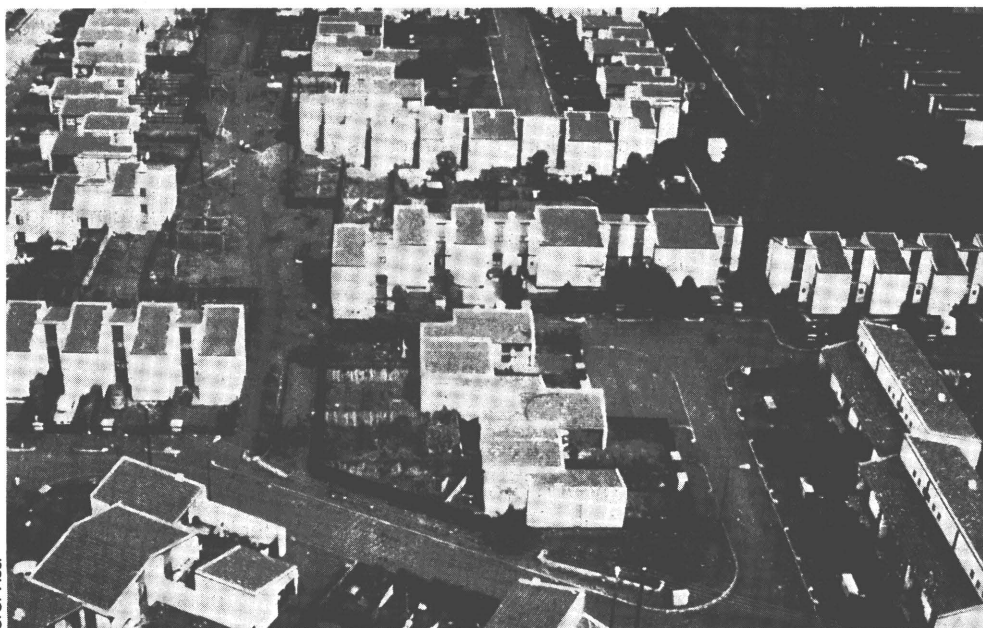
The long gestation period of Shelter-Afrique itself demonstrates the problems which it is designed to overcome. The ADB had for many years been conscious of the housing problem throughout Africa. Since its inception in 1964, ADB had seen that problem compounded through high population growth, declining resource flows and the inability of all but a few of its member states to preserve—let alone increase—the existing housing stock. ADB became persuaded that one of the highest social priorities in Africa

must lie in the provision of basic shelter and housing for low and middle income households.

Finance for housing in Africa has traditionally been raised by national housing corporations for subsidised housing, and by national housing finance companies and savings banks substantially from three bilateral institutions: the British government's Commonwealth Development Corporation (CDC), the French Caisse Centrale de Coopération Economique (CCCE) and the US Agency for International Development (AID). The British and French institutions have also provided the necessary technical expertise in the establishment and operations of such companies. Virtually all other institutions are debarred either statutorily or voluntarily from financing the housing sector. In the mid 1970s, however, pressure from different priorities, in particular the needs of agriculture, caused CCCE to terminate and CDC drastically to reduce commitments to this sector.

Shelter-Afrique represents ADB's attempt to fill this vacuum in the provision of finance for national housing institutions in Africa. A preliminary study in 1977 prompted ADB to favour the creation of an autonomous regional housing finance institution as better suited for such specialized operations than the use of its own resources and organizational structure. The Commonwealth Development Corporation was then asked to prepare a detailed feasibility study and to assist ADB in the setting up of such an institution, especially by mobilizing non-regional support in addition to CDC's own. The African Reinsurance Corporation (Africa-Re) also became associated with the preparations for Shelter-Afrique. The proposal received the support of the UN Centre for Human Settlements (UNCHS), which acknowledged it as the first of a series of regional housing finance institutions which it wished to see developed.

The principal objective of Shelter-Afrique is to become a regional instrument for assisting member governments with the elaboration of coherent and effective housing



S.S. Aasi

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View of Buru Buru, an estate built in Nairobi along formal urban planning lines and financed by a mortgage bank for the municipal council. Financing agencies can help provide better organized urban centres



Houses in Maseru, capital of Lesotho. The rehabilitation of brick can give ACP towns a more dignified appearance at higher quality and lower cost

policies as well as with their implementation. Apart from financing the construction of shelter it is therefore concerned with the whole issue of housing development in Africa and in particular —

- (a) the mobilization of capital from which loan and equity resources can be made available to national housing development institutions for approved schemes in member countries;
- (b) facilitating the investment of public and private capital in housing and the establishment and development of viable institutions in African countries through equity participation and technical assistance;
- (c) the building up within Shelter-Afrique, with assistance from experienced institutions, of a technical capacity which will ensure the soundness of its own operations; and
- (d) the provision of technical services to member governments, in particular to assist with the establishment of competent housing institutions where these do not yet exist and to assist in the training of their technical personnel.

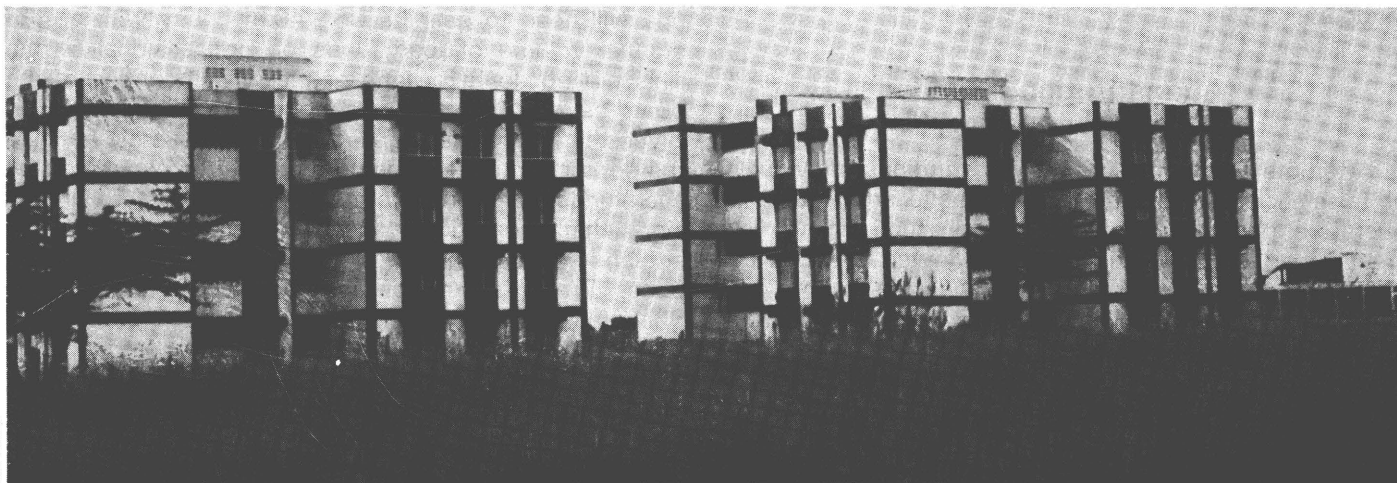
Among the technical and other resources which Shelter-Afrique is to draw on will be not only those of its non-regional shareholders but also the capacities of the UNCHS, the Economic Commission for Africa and other multilateral and bilateral agencies qualified to assist member governments in statistical, policy and technical areas.

As can be seen from these objectives, Shelter-Afrique will aim to enhance rather than supplant the role of national housing institutions. These are essentially of two types, reflecting the efforts of governments to deal with their housing problems in two distinct ways: the physical creation of housing through a national housing corporation or directly by a ministry of housing; and the provision of mortgage finance for home purchasers through housing finance institutions or sometimes general development banks.

Some 16 countries in Africa have national housing corporations, whose task is usually to plan and execute building programmes and administer the resulting properties. Their vocation is generally to house the lower income groups through low cost rental housing. They are also required, however, to provide accommodation for the better-off, in particular public servants. The proportions in which they do this are dependent on their funding but this itself will be a reflection of their government's housing policy, since most are fed from budgetary resources.

The housing finance institutions now existing in almost half the countries in Africa have mostly had their origins in mortgage agencies, which have become fully-fledged building societies through the acceptance of public deposits aided by appropriate legislation. Others have developed out of savings banks. In both cases they are fulfilling the dual function of facilitating home ownership and providing a focal point for small savings and capital formation.

Both housing corporations and mortgage finance institutions are generally concerned with specific development projects rather than individual properties. The former deal with projects such as site-and-service, core or rural housing schemes and blocks of rental flats, especially in urban environments. The latter concentrate on housing estates built mostly by private developers to



Another housing scheme backed by a mortgage agency. Services should be laid on before building begins, but often only come later.

I.R. Lane



In Kenya there is more housing of this kind than in brick. Yet there is increasing evidence of a correlation between good housing conditions, successful schooling and job stability

approved designs and standards, on which construction finance is eventually converted into mortgage loans for lower and middle income group purchasers.

Finance is almost invariably sought by these institutions on the basis of such schemes. Internally generated funds are sometimes available from deposits or from compulsory savings or levies collected by provident or housing funds; but a large part of the burden rests on the government budget. One of the major components has therefore to be external finance solicited either directly by the institutions or by the government to refinance its budget.

"An institution intended to be creditworthy"

Attempts by national housing institutions individually to raise such finance in recent years have largely failed. It therefore became obvious that such fund-raising was best undertaken collectively and endowed with the authority and standing which a regional institution promoted by ADB could give it. It is this which provided the impulse for Shelter-Afrique.

The legal structure chosen for Shelter-Afrique has probably made history. A major concern throughout was to avoid the complexities of an international treaty organization. Also important was to create a streamlined, efficient and commercially oriented framework which would give confidence to the external investor as well as ensur-

ing that funds were applied with despatch and without bearing large administrative overheads. Twenty-three African governments as well as ADB, Africa-Re (and shortly CDC) have therefore come together as shareholders in a charter company incorporated under Kenyan law, based on the recognition by the Kenyan legislature of a convention signed between the African members.

As an institution intended to be creditworthy, to service its capital and to conserve it for continuing operations, Shelter-Afrique can invest only in entities or projects which are themselves able to service their capital. Since investments will in the first phase be directed primarily towards national institutions, the beneficiaries will therefore be purchasers or tenants provided with housing by such intermediaries. The target groups of these intermediaries are broadly defined as those able to make some financial contribution to the costs of their housing. In effect this will cover both lower-middle and low income groups, ranging from those able with the

aid of sufficiently long-term loans to pay the full cost of house purchase to those paying perhaps only a minimal rental for their accommodation.

Shelter-Afrique's objectives nevertheless clearly express an obligation to assist national institutions with finance for low-income projects and, as far as possible, to encourage them with advice and technical assistance to submit schemes of benefit to the lowest possible income groups, perhaps to some extent also in rural centres.

In order to make an effective contribution, Shelter-Afrique will need to gear its US\$ 40 m equity with a substantial volume of loan funds on concessional terms. This will no doubt be one of the main priorities of the board as well as its newly appointed managing director. Given the high social significance of adequately housing the poorer sections of the community it is expected that such funds will soon become available. There are already signs that international agencies have recognised that site-and-service schemes alone are not fulfilling their purpose. The existence of an efficient organization like Shelter-Afrique, capable of adding a more durable element to such schemes, could provide more acceptable solutions in the future.

With that backing Shelter-Afrique will then be set fair to become a unique and effective instrument for improving the human condition in African countries, as well as for helping African governments towards the amelioration of one of their most pressing social needs. ○ J.L.

EEC aid for urban projects

In the 1960s and 1970s, the ACP countries, during the decolonization process, found themselves very seriously under-equipped. The symbolic role of the capital quickened the desire of political leaders to invest in large towns. Force of habit, a taste for prestige and various other factors were all too often a determining influence over the desire for change. Proper housing, health and education tended to be very much an after-thought, only subsequently given due attention compared with the prime task which was to erect buildings, in this case in the form of housing accommodation, hospitals and schools, and to provide scholarships.

In accordance with the spirit of Lomé, the choice of objectives and priorities is essentially for the Community's partners to make. This has not always been to the benefit of spatial planning or encouraged the development of a complementary approach towards town and country. A further constraint, also not negotiable, is the compartmentalization of schemes, which often obstructs the implementation of integrated projects, that is to say, the channelling of funds towards a single objective.

Housing projects are a relatively new area as regards Community assistance; in fact, only under the fourth EDF did they come under consideration as a result of a number of requests from English-speaking African countries and have not yet been the subject of systematic ex-post evaluation. Although the Community has not financed urban planning projects in the strict sense of the term, it has nevertheless made possible major development schemes in ACP towns and rural areas. The schemes it has financed can be classified under a few broad headings:

- (i) improvement of hygiene and utility networks (water supply, sanitation, electricity, etc.);
- (ii) provision of site and service infrastructure for the very poor, who subsequently carry out the building operation themselves (site and service scheme approach);
- (iii) construction of housing linked to an industrial, educational or health project and intended for the accommodation of extension workers.

It is not possible readily to break down the financing involved any more than to systematically classify the projects themselves, but it will be seen that the figures are relatively modest.

million ECU

	4th EDF	Maghreb Mashreg Israel	Total
Health	50	—	50
Sanitation and water	42	63	105
Housing	23	—	23
TOTAL	115	63	178

The scale of Community assistance available for urban projects will probably be limited, in view of the vast requirements of this sector and the priorities accorded to agricultural and industrial development, to between 5% and 15% of the total volume of project spending.

However, urban schemes can have a considerable impact, provided that the following conditions are observed:

- (i) Overall approach, i.e. account should be taken of the local human and physical resources, the actual needs and constraints associated with the economic, social and cultural infrastructure, the physical environment, etc.
- (ii) Without ignoring the poorest sections of the population, priority should be accorded to social groups according to their capacity to become agents of development, capable of applying in other contexts the benefits derived from pilot and undertaking job-generating schemes;
- (iii) Exploitation of local resources (organization of do-it-yourself construction) and use of appropriate technology (aim of gradual improvement based on traditional know-how);
- (iv) Land availability and control of land usage, together with fair ownership rules, thereby encouraging participation and resulting in genuine demand.

Hence, Community assistance could be limited to:

- (i) Certain urban development works (site and service schemes, emergency programmes, etc.);
- (ii) Improvement of credit facilities both for small local undertakings and for those in search of housing, in order to assist construction undertakings and encourage active participation by the recipients (establishment of a housing savings system, real estate promotion organizations, etc.);
- (iii) Technical assistance for official bodies (feasibility studies, training schemes, establishment of standards, etc.).

The shanty-towns which are found on the edge of almost all urban areas in the Third World cannot be destroyed or eliminated overnight by breaking up the community and its fixed assets and driving the inhabitants back into the countryside. They must be legalized, provided with proper sanitation, improved and renovated.

There is in Europe, and elsewhere in the world, a fund of specialist knowledge on urban questions, based substantially on long-acquired experience; there is also a broad range of measures available which can influence the development of the construction sector and its constituent components. Without radically modifying the volume of financial resources available, but at the same time seeking greater effectiveness, real scope for cooperation in the urban context could be achieved. ◊

Anastasios ZACHARAS

EEC Commission

director-general for development

Some EDF urban improvement projects

St Vincent: Health project — ECU 2 million (5th EDF)

To establish social and health services in the Grenadines in the island of Union. The proposed new health

centre will provide Union and its numerous neighbouring islands with preventive, curative and above all, first aid medical care.

It will involve the construction and the purchase of equipment for a new ward block at Kingstown Hospital with 90 beds, and a new health centre in Union Island with 10 beds.

This project will reinforce the existing health infrastructure and will aim at ensuring better medical, cover not only in urban but also in rural areas.

The cost of the present project was estimated at ECU 2 million. The project is expected to be completed 20 months after the signature of the financing agreement, which was on 9 October 1981. Complementary finance of ECU 600 000 was necessary to cover additional costs generated by the appreciation of the local currency against the ECU. A rider to the financing agreement was signed on 17 January 1983.

Bahamas: Three health care projects — ECU 200 000 (5th EDF)

The purpose of the present project is to reinforce basic health facilities in the Commonwealth to the Bahamas. The scheme is intended to provide health care centres in three outlying areas, to give the local people access to preventive and curative medical care that is currently lacking.

The project will involve the construction and purchase of equipment and furniture for a new clinic and residence at High Rock, Grand Bahama; a new clinic at William Town, Exuma; and a new clinic and residence at Weymss Bight, Eleuthera. The total cost is estimated at ECU 436 000. The EDF contribution will be ECU 200 000. The complementary financing of the project will be undertaken by the government of the Bahamas.

EDF financing will cover 24 months after the signing of the financing agreement (on 14 February 1983). Tenders were opened on 4 March 1983.

Zambia: Five rural health centres — ECU 2 million (5th EDF)

The purpose of the project is to reinforce basic health facilities in Zambia by building and equipping five health centres in rural areas and 15 houses for the staff of the centres (three houses for each centre). Such basic health facilities are sorely lacking at present. The health centres will provide preventive and curative health care, give basic health education and hold special clinics for mothers and infants and for nutritional problems.

This project is a continuation of a completed project for five rural health centres of similar size. The five new centres will be located in the following rural districts: Mongu, Kapombo, Kasempa, Mansa, Chilubi.

The financing agreement was signed on 24 November 1981. Implementation, counted from that date, is estimated at 28 months. The total cost for the five centres is estimated at ECU 2 000 000.

Tanzania-Kenya: Regional health service (5th EDF)

This project will help towards the expansion of training, health education, rural health, clinical and nursing services. It will particularly help to ensure better health

coverage in rural areas and support instructive in both countries. It will also maintain the exchange of technical expertise between them.

The project will complement other resources made available to the countries through the African Medical and Research Foundation (AMREF), which acts as a regional agency for health services development across national borders and is the executing agency for this project. It will enable the countries to strengthen and improve their rural health services and training capability and share their experiences, particularly regarding primary health care. The project has three components: construction of enlarged office, training, workshop and storage facilities in Nairobi; construction of offices and staff housing in Dar es-Salaam; and purchase of transport vehicles, technical co-operation to support the expansion of the programme. The financing agreement was signed on 24 February 1983.

Zimbabwe: Regional veterinary science faculty: ECU 12.4 m (5th EDF)

The countries of southern Africa, especially Zimbabwe, have well-developed modern sectors and important traditional stock-forming sectors. There is a great need for highly qualified veterinarians.

The purpose of this project is to construct and equip a veterinary faculty at the University of Zimbabwe, with facilities for pre-clinical, paraclinical and clinical teaching as well as an administration department, and to provide support for teaching staff. There will be an annual intake of 40 students (of whom 20 will come from other SADCC countries), giving a total of 200 students over the five-year course.

The execution of the project will ensure the availability of highly qualified veterinarians for SADCC and will also safeguard and complement the ECU 69.5 m investment made by the EDF in the livestock sector in southern Africa.

The total cost of the project is estimated at ECU 12.4 m and will be completed within 20 months of the signature of the financing agreement. It is the intention to present the project to the decision-making bodies in autumn 1983.

Swaziland: Teacher training colleges. ECU 7.4 million (5th EDF)

This project should increase the capability of the recently opened Ngwane Teacher Training College at Nhlangano by completing phase two of the planned development of the college, at an estimated cost of ECU 1.8 m; and to construct another teacher training college at Pigg's Peak in the north of Swaziland, at an estimated cost of ECU 5.6 m, which will have the same capacity (400 students) as the Ngwane college. The total cost of the project is ECU 7.4 m including contingencies, to be wholly financed by Community aid. Implementation should take about three years.

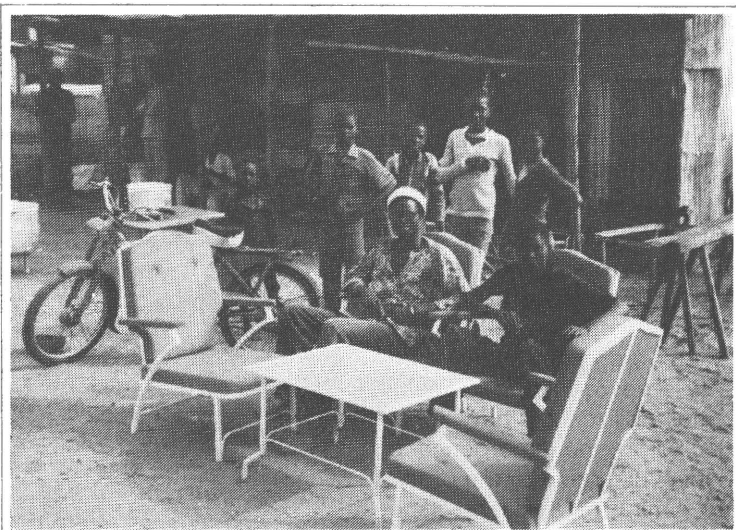
The scheme should ensure the maintenance and improvement of the quality of education provided in Swaziland, producing more school leavers with appropriate skills, not only for the modern sector but particularly in the area of rural development. ○

Small urban businesses: should they be controlled?

by Y. CABANNES (*) and A. MORICE (**)

Development workers have been taking a sustained interest in urban craftsmen in the Third World over the past decade. This is the sector, which observers were perhaps too quick to call informal or non-structured, that covers all small-scale activities which have no wage employment, keep no accounts and more or less fall outside any specific laws on labour. This heteroclitic sector, which includes street-sellers and craftsmen, repairers and pieceworkers, has swollen to a considerable size. It has expanded with the towns where it seems, on the face of it, to be an answer to the problems of unemployment and production. Hence this persisting interest, which is neither anodine nor free of contradictions.

Multi-purpose workshop in Senegal. The boss is making aluminium saucepans, his cousin scrap-metal colanders and his half-brother armchairs, which will be displayed in the workshop. Most labour is recruited in the family



The paradoxes of voluntarism

ILO experts usually regard this sector as rich in opportunities for work, income and training, and therefore one that can make up for the inadequacies of hypothetical industrialization. The many surveys the ILO has run (the first, the "Kenya report", is still famous) led the authors to recommend that governments adopt a more positive attitude to the non-structured sector and to suggest they take supposedly favourable measures—a selective policy of financial support, training for craftsmen, assistance for groupings of small firms, the protection of their markets, an invitation to use modern systems of accounting and the more flexible application of the law for non-registered professions. This meant structuring the non-structured

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sector, in a way, without taking away its individual features.

It will come as no surprise to learn that, in spite of considerable means of investigation, this voluntarist strategy has, as far as we know, never even begun to be systematically applied. So much the better, some people will say, for policies intended to support the informal sector can have destructive effects on complex socio-economic systems. By pushing a chosen few into a capitalist system, they are in danger of pushing others into even greater marginalization and destroying the social fabric of the town. Others are disappointed on the grounds that, if the governments wanted to apply a policy of developing the informal sector, a lot of social problems and political troubles could be avoided in the future.

But whether we think it is good or bad, we must admit that these small-time workers are currently outside any proper external regulations and will continue to be so for some time to come. This is because of the nature of the work, the features of the jobs that, despite their heterogeneity, have something in common. We shall use our experience in Africa (3) (extrapolation for other continents will only be made with great care) to summarize the paradoxical situation of these small craftsmen, traders, transporters and suppliers of services. They form a sector where there is a high degree of economic and legal uncertainty, and quite complex forms of social and political organization.

Organization

These jobs are only informal in appearance, as the very uncertainty of their situation is a reason for strong internal cohesion. They are carried on under what is often strong competition and the workers are forced to keep their costs of production down to what a poor population can afford. The fact that there may be a large supply of cheap labour (children, often, and young people, not to mention female domestic labour) in the town means they cannot ask anything but low prices. Apart from the (variable) training they get, apprentices tend not to be entitled to security of employment or to a wage, and they operate within a paternalistic social system in which

(2) *Employment, Incomes and Equality: a Strategy for Increasing Productive Employment in Kenya*, Geneva, ILO (World Employment Programme), 1972.

(3) See notably A. Morice: *Les petites activités urbaines. Réflexions à partir de deux études de cas: les vélos taxis et les travailleurs du métal de Kaolack (Sénégal)*, Paris, IEDES, 1981, and «Les travailleurs non salariés en Afrique: précarité économique et dépendance sociale», *Le Monde Diplomatique*, Décembre 1982, p. 24-25.

the boss (often a relation) gives his protection in return for their hard work. A subsistence living is provided by the family, thanks to a redistribution of any surplus and any profit from the business.

Employers channel the major part of their profits into urban consumption, so the surplus is rarely invested productively. The system, one of reciprocal rights and duties, is present in what has sometimes been called a subsistence economy (4).

Of course, this tendency of small-time workers to over-exploit others—while redistributing the profits—is to be seen against the background of a system of power and complex social relations. This integration had been overlooked by a large number of analysts, who have all too often confined themselves to collecting figures for each of the operators, without devising a way of assessing the links between them. Yet "every man for himself" is a rare attitude in the Third World and qualitative surveys reveal that the apparently most individual professions are carried on within a highly structured framework, in which certain groups control the profits and the way they are used (5). The family alliances and the obligations associated with them, within this very dense network of relations, play a decisive role in the distribution of wealth. In Africa, moreover, the informal sector and the civil service are closely linked and it would be quite wrong to try and see the two as opposed. A relation in the civil service is a great asset if you want to run a business properly and more or less every civil servant has a finger in a small business (through his wife, his children or his allies).

So the internal regulation of this small business sector is a question of a whole series of professional, political and even matrimonial strategies. The system is often based on social relations inherited from the rural world, in particular the discretionary powers of the older members over the younger ones. It is powerful and probably lasting. But it is also being destabilized by new urban conditions, which are conducive to the emergence of individualistic behaviour, and it is vulnerable to the official desires to restructure a sector where the social machinery is still poorly understood.

Before looking at the answers international aid has proposed for urban development, one example should give an idea of a part of this kind of organization, which is often not very visible but genuine nonetheless.

Small building businesses in Antohomadinika

Antohomadinika is an old, informal district of Antananarivo, the capital of Madagascar (6). It lies near the mar-

(4) See J. Charmes: «Les contradictions du développement du secteur non structuré» and C. de Miras «Le secteur de subsistance dans les branches de production à Abidjan» in P. Hugon (editor): *Secteur informel et petite production marchande dans les villes du Tiers-Monde*, Paris, P.U.F., 1980, p. 321-335 and p. 353-372 (special issue of *Revue Tiers Monde*, vol. XXI, n° 82).

(5) See e.g., R. Bromley (ed.): *The Urban Informal Sector: Critical Perspectives on Employment and Housing Policies*, Oxford, Pergamon, 1979 (special issue of *World Development*, vol. 6, n° 9-10), and the bibliography of I. Deble, P. Hugon (editor): *Vivre et Survivre dans les villes africaines*, Paris, P.U.F. 1982.

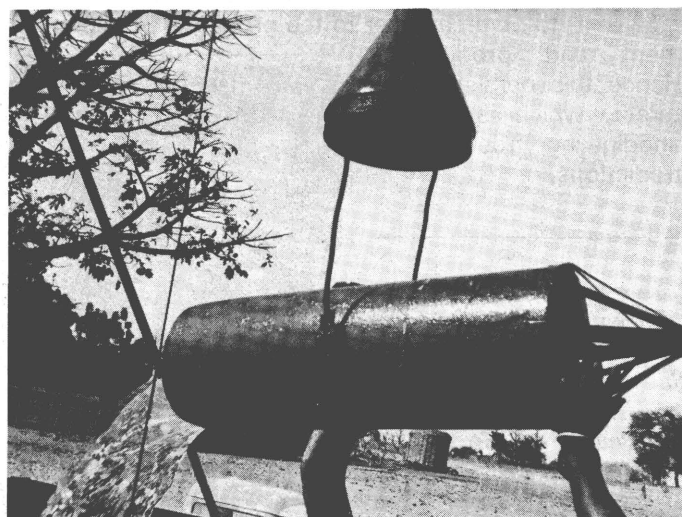
(6) Weill M., Osmont A., Cabannes Y., *Pour une opération pilote d'amélioration d'habitat à Antohomadinika*, R.P. Malagasy, UNCHS (UN Centre for Human Settlements), Nov. 1980, 213 p.

ket and the station and is primarily concerned with timber, having its dealers, its cabinet-makers, its crate-makers and, above all, its carpenters. And there are other activities and workshops. Small services are provided, there is a range of repair shops, there are scrap merchants, there are junk sellers and nearby there are cheap restaurants as well.

The small building businesses do not have workshops that are visible to the visitor and so they are difficult to assess. But a study was run in 1980 and this made it possible to outline various jobs (7).

(a) Contractors

These may or may not be declared to the authorities and they may or may not have any particular knowledge of the building trade. The contractor will tend to have a good business sense and he will recruit temporary labour, providing tools in the light of what contracts he may have. Sometimes he will sub-contract. He is responsible for purchasing the materials, but the necessary funds are advanced by the owner.



Drawing water in rural Africa. This tilting tank was designed and built by a city ironmonger and his son who have taken up mechanics and soldering. Locally-made equipment is often as efficient as imported equipment and easier to repair

(b) Groups of craftsmen

Craftsmen from officially declared and other firms may set up on their own account, grouping together spontaneously and without any other mutual commitments for a given job, the team in most cases comprising two masons, one or two carpenters and two tilers. The team will generally take the person who found the contract as the boss; it will agree on the number of workers to be recruited and on the sharing of the profits.

(c) Piece-workers

These people deal directly with the owners in respect of a given piece of work. They provide their own tools, although the materials are supplied by the owner. The

(7) Rakotobe N., *Les petits métiers à Antohomadinika*, internal doc. R.P. Malagasy, UNCHS, Nov. 1980, 11 p.

irregularity and small size of contracts leads to piece-workers tending to be jacks of all trade—masons and carpenters become white-washers, electricians also do plumbing and masons carpentry.

(d) Family teams of piece-workers

These teams, often of two or three masons, are from the same family. They provide a framework and the oldest member will teach new arrivals what to do. The members will be told as soon as a contract has been obtained and they will then recruit one or two labourers, who will be well paid if they are members of the family. In order to keep the hiring of external labour down to a minimum, the workers again tend to be jacks of all trade. The irregularity of contracts, the meagre resources of their customers and the very rudimentary standard of their equipment (no trucks, wheelbarrows or ladders) force some craftsmen to do little repair jobs.

Every old part of town has a specific combination of these jobs. In Antohomadinika, the individual piece-workers and the family teams dominate; but in the better-off districts, contractors and teams of craftsmen, combined in a complex manner with the two previous types of work, appear to be the rule.

In the recently "invaded" districts, other types of work may be combined with the previous ones. There may be help from members of the family and arrangements that are specific to rural areas or have come in with new inhabitants.

These will vary from one district and from one town to the next. The variations from one country to another will, of course, be even greater. They are specific to each sector. If we had dealt with the production of materials, other forms would have emerged. The problems and the assets of these producers are quite as specific. Research aimed at understanding this sector in all its complexity has so far been fairly restricted and the political decision-makers and developers often ignore the fact that it has been carried out. Studies of this kind now seem vital if

we are to understand, first of all, and perhaps intervene later on. The example of the Cissin operation in Ouagadougou shows the risks of inadequate investigation of the environment. A few years after this housing project wound up, none of the 13 earth brick-makers was still in business. An examination of urban development projects will enable us to see to what extent the small building business are taken into account.

International aid and the small business

Housing projects that have had multilateral aid (from NGOs, the EDF, the IBRD, etc.) tend to deal with two aspects of small businesses. They may involve assisting own home-building and they may dynamize the informal sector by injecting contracts.

Assistance for people putting up their own homes

This in all its forms is certainly the commonest kind of arrangement (see EDF, UN and other projects). Literature on the subject and the practices themselves are such (8) that it is difficult to generalize. However, the common denominator involves providing back-up for the users from above, often giving them technical assistance. The users are involved in building their own housing on either a collective or an individual basis. This is generally based on the idea that putting up one's own house is the dominant form of home production in spontaneous urban areas.

The example of Madagascar—and there are many others—suggests that this is more myth than reality. The image of the user building his home by himself or with the help of his family in a non-monetarized economy does not seem actually to correspond to the usual urban

(8) GRET Habitat: *Rôle des organisations internationales dans l'économie des échanges internationaux du bâtiment. Plan construction*, Paris, 1983, 190 p. + annexes.



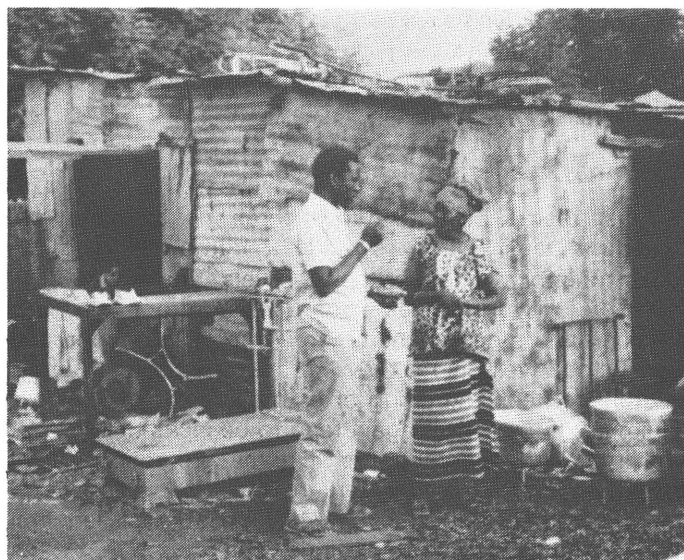
Pots being made in a Senegalese home. In Senegal, this is the job of the professional castes (a blacksmith's wife in this case) and the know-how is handed down from mother to daughter. This is an important source of extra income for housewives



Saucepans and stoves on display in the Gambia. This workshop is run by an artisan who emigrated from Senegal. There are whole family and ethnic networks in many capitals of western Africa



Cycle taxis in Kaolack (Senegal). This unusual profession is tolerated but officially banned and relations with the authorities are stormy. There is a complex hierarchy and a very strict set of rules covering the taximen, their apprentices, the union officials and the cycle owners. A whole society lies behind this apparent anarchy



Deep discussion between a caster of saucepans and a prospective buyer, a stall-holder at the market. A great deal of haggling goes on about the prices, which vary according to season. Because the artisans have families to look after and are financially unable to build up stock, they often have to make do with derisory profit margins

practices in the ACP countries in which we have worked (9).

Building one's own home seems to be on a par with existing forms of building and, furthermore, it increases competition with the contractors, the family teams and the individual piece-workers. The tendency will be for it to weaken these other forms of enterprise if they are already in difficulty. Furthermore, and counter to the argument put forward in favour of own home building, this does not lead to any significant savings on the part of the government. The work we did in Ethiopia and Guinea Bissau suggests that the part of the costs that can be replaced by unpaid contributions by the users themselves is only 10 or 15 % of the total. And the costs of supervision (by architects, etc.) mean that any savings derived from not paying the home builder for his work are very small. Simply, then, the whole impression is that the money for the project helps maintain the authorities to the detriment of the builder.

If own home building has no obvious advantages as far as the small businesses, the national economy or the social economy are concerned, how can its popularity with the governments be explained? As we see it, it is used as an argument to back up the fact that many countries in the ACP group, and the Third World in general, have given up the idea of taking the social sectors over. The reason for this is that they may have debts, a burdensome, plethoric administration and priority on short-term profitability or arms and prestige spending. The sectors of collective reproduction of the work force (housing, of course, but also such areas as transport and water supplies) are increasingly being left to the users. It is worth noting, by the way, that many appropriate technology schemes may encourage this.

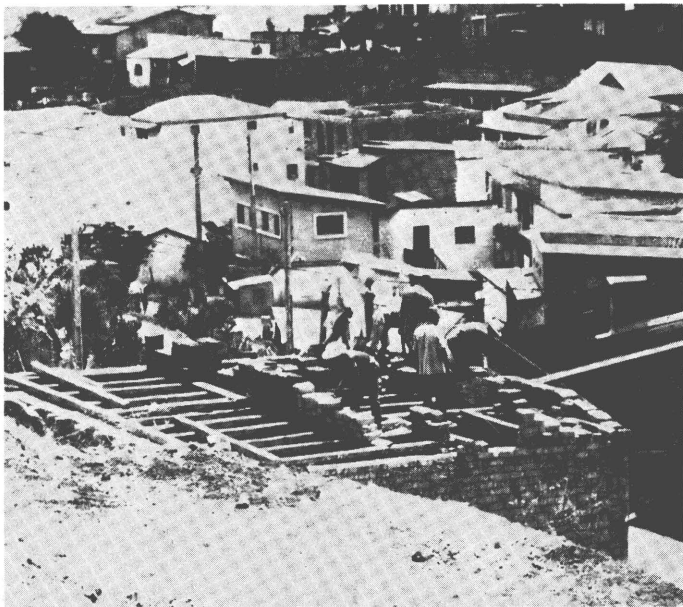
(9) GRET Habitat: see, for example, the *Rapports de missions, d'identification de projets* on the Central African Republic (P. Dalix), Cape Verde (F. Dugast), Guinea Bissau (Y. Cabannes).

Let us look at water supplies and drainage. The conventional centralized techniques (pumping stations, filtering stations and primary, secondary and tertiary networks) call for considerable financial input, government sponsoring and intervention by large firms. Individual and semi-collective drainage techniques (dry latrines, etc.) and supply systems (wells and pumps) do not need government backing. The user can be responsible for his own needs and carry out the work with the informal sector, thereby making for greater savings in the private sector and the state.

Dynamizing the informal sector

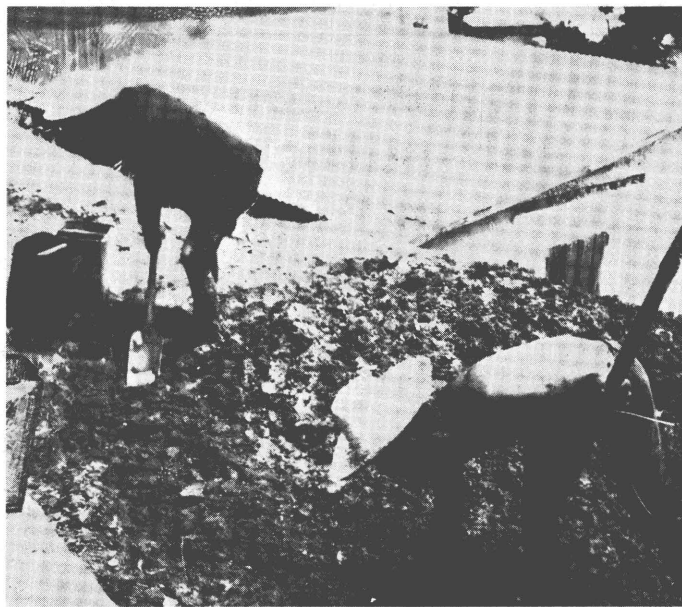
Some housing projects no longer involve assisting the own home builder or getting the local population to participate. Two projects, co-financed by the World Bank and the Indian government in Madras, are typical examples of this new approach. They are urban development projects consisting, among other things, of improving the shanty towns around the city. This work (public fountains, roads and plantations) has been put in the hands of very small contractors who have close links with the informal sector. The cost of this infrastructure work is 50 % of the total and the other 50 % has been shared out amongst the users in the form of very small loans and grants—FF 100 for grants and less than FF 350 for loans. The recipients are free to use this money as they like, provided it goes on home improvements. Some may buy 2000 bricks, some palm panels for the roof, while others pay for the services of neighbours or piece-workers. So what the project amounts to is a two-tier injection (award of contracts and loans to the users) of money into the small business sector.

There are advantages to this method, but it also raises a number of questions. By encouraging debts to the state and access to small individual properties (the improved plots are sold to the traditional occupants), these



Building spontaneous housing in Antananarivo (Madagascar).

In the "recently invaded" quarters, teams of craftsmen, individual piece-workers and family teams are not the only way of getting the work done. Members of the family may come and help too



New arrivals get help from relatives who have been in the capital for longer. Help from members of the family, which is often paid, is virtually unknown in the old part of town

projects reduce the cohesion of the communities occupying the shanty towns and weaken the mutual help and resistance networks. The future will tell whether the new owners of improved plots will give in to the proposals of the private promoters who are anxious to obtain these well-placed sites.

Whether they involve this kind of thing or giving help to own home builders, the urban schemes international aid has run in response to the problems raised by the small businesses only provide a partial answer.

What about the future?

The future of these small professions and crafts should be considered in the light of their legal marginalization. It is clear to any observer that they are an expanding and probably lasting phenomenon the world over. But the authorities' attitude is still one of profound ambiguity, even in certain socialist countries where they are banned but where the black market and clandestine activities thrive.

It is for all the world as if the governments were expecting them to disappear soon and were playing things by ear meanwhile. Informal workers are on the fringe of the law, usually not officially declared, non-payers of tax and not really forced to respect the labour laws. They are subjected to liberalism and repression in turn. So they are tossed about on a sea of *de facto* recognition (they are useful and therefore inevitable) but they are persecuted because they are illicit.

This legal instability reflects their economic precariousness. This is particularly visible in those branches of production that are directly exploited by the big international firms. The system of sub-contracting enables these firms to ignore the conditions of production and to leave it to traditional social relations to regulate any problems between individuals. So the absence of an official status enables the small informal businesses to keep their pro-

duction costs right down by avoiding paying for their labour (often supplied by members of the family). Elsewhere, particularly in distribution and services, the commercial sector and the state find an interest in the maintenance of such a system. Speculation on raw materials, wear and tear, fines and other obscure levies keep the small businesses permanently on the threshold of any profitability.

This is why most governments decline to plan, but leave themselves the possibility, thanks to the lack of laws on the subject, to take repressive measures in particular cases. The emergence of any conflicting interests and dissent among the ministers concerned means that, periodically, whole sections of the informal sector are punished, perhaps even expelled.

The effect of this is to remind them that they are there on sufferance and to marginalize them even more. Sometimes the demands of the tourist trade and the action of international organizations lead the authorities to try to bring some order to the most sensitive areas—begging and child labour, for example. In certain countries, such as Senegal, laws have even been passed to cope with overcrowding and social problems. This means police operations to remove small businessmen from the street—but they generally reappear a little further or a little later on, in spite of the greater precariousness involved in doing so.

It is our duty to say that, in the absence of any other solution for the urban populations in question here, piecemeal policies create human damage that is perhaps greater than the scourges they are intended to combat. A misunderstanding of the actual economic and social machinery of the town, which is so common in the experts sent out from the Western capitals to solve the problem of the small businessmen, is an aggravating factor in this destructive process of marginalization.

○ YC. and A.M.

Urbanization and self-sufficiency in food

by **Christiane DEVILLEZ-LIERDEMAN** (*)

More than 20 years ago, when proclaiming the independence of colonized peoples, the United Nations inaugurated the first development decade. We are now in the third decade. Has this period seen real "development"—in terms of living conditions, availability of culture and health facilities, freedom of speech, freedom from violence...?

The hungry – still with us

Fifty million people die of hunger every year and 450 million are starving; 80 million live in absolute poverty, 600 million of these on the land. Among the poorest countries are those in Africa lying immediately south of the Sahara. One African in five is under-nourished, one in 20 is threatened by famine.

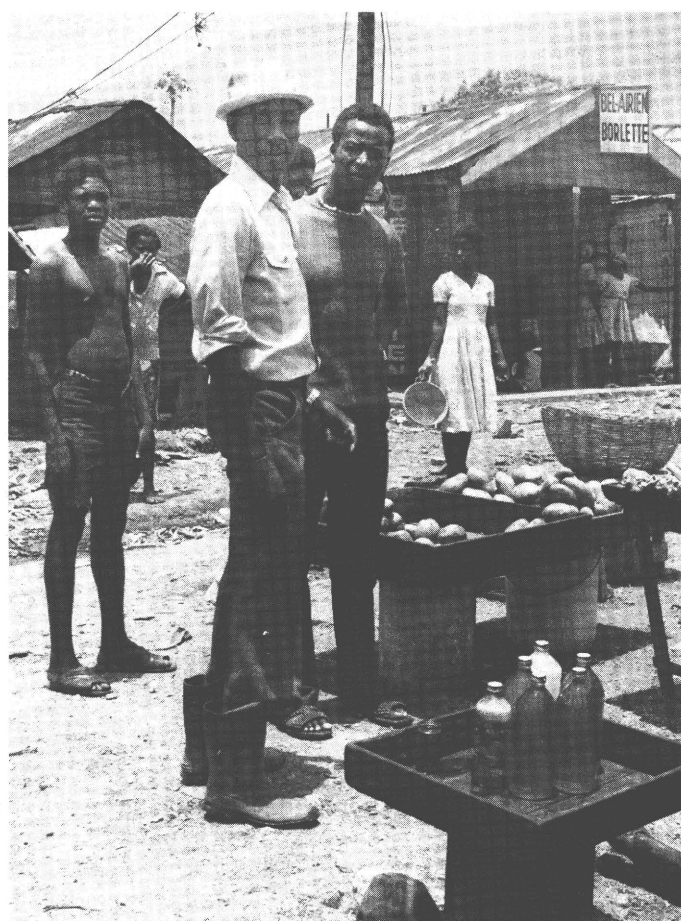
The rate of yearly growth in Africa's agricultural output has slowed down, dropping from 2.6% in the 1960s to 1.3% in the '70s. As population growth accelerates, production per capita continues to fall. Agriculturally self-sufficient at the end of World War II, Africa today is importing increasing quantities of cereals: 2 million tonnes in 1960, 6 million in 1970, 10 million in 1975, 24 million in 1980. Last year saw black Africa's estimated food deficit standing at more than \$200 million. Many African countries now spend more on food imports than on oil. This has led to increased production of export crops and stagnating or even declining production of food crops. Even where an increase in agricultural production does occur, this is due to an increase in area planted rather than improved efficiency or productivity.

Runaway urbanization

Urbanization is a remorseless, age-old, world-wide phenomenon. By the year 2000, 50% of the world's population will live in cities (14% in 1920). In 1950 there were 10 cities with over 5 million inhabitants and these were all industrial cities in developed countries. By 2000 there are expected to be 60, 45 of them in developing countries. "The world is entering unexplored territory", to quote one of the United Nations preparatory documents for the 1980 Rome Conference.

Two factors have contributed to the growth of cities: the high birth rate and a major migratory trend. The flight from the land is being accelerated by conditions unfavourable to agriculture and stock farming, in particular unpredictable climate and poor soil.

In the Sahelian countries, where prospects for agricultural growth and prosperity hardly exist, migration is the



A shanty-town in Haiti, where soil erosion, hunger and the flight from the land are reaching considerable proportions

only realistic option open to those living on the land who wish to improve their living conditions and income.

For the rural poor, the city is a mirage: progress, modernity, the promise of work, an easier life and greater social liberty. It offers an irresistible attraction.

But in reality the majority of city-dwellers make do with a parody of city life: Third World cities are three-quarters shanty town. Their inhabitants are without essential services: the sewage system of Abidjan serves only 20% of the population. The problems are insuperable: ensuring water, energy and food supplies, creating a transport network and road system, providing educational, sanitary and social facilities.

The authorities sometimes employ more energy and imagination in policing the cities than in providing them with basic comforts.

"Thus the poverty of the countryside is transferred to the towns. The peasant masses find themselves totally excluded from the means of production and therefore from the consumer society they live in. Dreaming through shop windows never fed anyone." (1)

What about food aid?

Isn't food aid a useful weapon in the fight against hunger? For decades now, we have been dispatching boats and planes laden with foodstuffs. The very fact that this

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(1) "Vaincre la faim, c'est possible", J. Y. Carfantan and C. Condamines. Editions du Seuil, p. 115.

aid has endured so long proves it is not succeeding. Of course we must continue to send emergency food aid, ensuring, furthermore, that it arrives in time and at the right destination.

But the solution to the problem of world hunger is not "to increase food aid twofold or tenfold" (2). Food aid engenders dependency, an expectation, which discourages local initiative. It destabilizes the local market by under-cutting local produce. It aggravates the town/country imbalance and upsets traditional eating patterns: "If he is clever, he will travel far and eat bread", as an African newspaper put it. The peasant, without urban outlets for his surplus produce, heads for the town hoping that he too will come in for some food aid.

The sort of aid given is generally dictated by the needs of the industrialized country. More often than not it is sold rather than given—another hole in the poorer country's balance of payments.

The international economic system is dominated by industrialized countries and is not favourable to developing countries. Trade between countries of unequal eco-

nomies integrated productive systems to evolve. The prices system must allow the surplus to be kept within the national economy, without thereby cutting the link to the world market.

It would seem, then, that there can be no process of development without this autonomous approach coupled with a national currency, internal socio-economic restructuring and integration in the national division of labour. These strategies are readily reconcilable with international economic relations.

At the Bucharest Conference in 1974, the Algerian representative declared: "Only a transformation in international economic relations will allow a development strategy to be adopted and open the way to greater harmony between economic and demographic factors".

Even if, as a rule, international trade is to the disadvantage of the weaker partner—and the deterioration in the terms of trade here is frequently cited—this should not be used as an alibi. National governments must themselves evolve a clear development strategy. Planning is the harbinger of such a strategy. It is "the affirmation of a national political will" (P. Masse).



Downtown in Nouakchott (Mauritania): science and education could also reorientate the activities of some communities whose traditions are less agricultural



In Luanda (Angola). In some regions, such as southern Africa, "civil" wars and other conflicts accelerate the growth of urban concentrations

nomie strength favours the stronger partner and creates a dependency in the weaker.

Dependence/independence?

G. Destanne de Bernis replaces the twin terms dependence/independence with domination/autonomy, autonomy being the progressive realization of a viable, inter-related national productive system. Such a system aims at meeting, ever more fully, the needs of the population (according to priority), i.e. it aims at promoting development. This requires the fulfilment of certain conditions, in particular the increased coordination of productive structures.

Agriculture and industry must work in tandem: agriculture supplies intermediate products and itself needs capital equipment. The interaction of these two sectors al-

lows integrated productive systems to evolve. The role of agriculture has been undergoing reassessment for some years now and, as a result of the Lagos Conference, the leaders of a number of developing countries have indicated their willingness to aim at the certain measure of independence in food supplies.

By independence here is meant security rather than self-sufficiency. Towards this end, certain conditions will have to be met: first, the food crop sector must be developed. Here it is not so much a question of modernizing farming methods—indispensable as this too will be—as of highlighting the priority of food production by making alterations in the structure of farm prices. The policy of paying the peasants low prices has favoured the city-dweller at the farmer's expense.

An urban consumer market is necessary to create outlets: at the moment, it is inadequate. The number of citizens must grow, as must their buying power—and their eating habits will have to change. The cycle of pro-

(2) Gérard Fuchs, member of the European Parliament: *Libération*, 12 January 1982.



Elsewhere, as here in Egypt, urban overcrowding and its serious consequences are partly due to rapid demographic growth

duction/storage/financing/consumption must also be organized.

Agrarian structures are often an obstacle to development. In some countries, land reform has led to the intensification and modernization of agriculture, the form taken by such reform, and its scope, being dictated by the socio-economic organization of the agricultural sector in the region or country in question. It is also essential that the emphasis be on production units whose size facilitates intensive farming and at the same time, where manpower is available in abundance, intensive utilization of agricultural labour.

There will have to be a whole range of institutional reforms: shifting the emphasis in agricultural research towards food crops, providing technical training facilities, information services and a credit system, and developing supply and distribution networks. The effect of these changes must be channelled towards subsistence agriculture if we are to see steady growth affecting all areas of food production.

What is required is the promotion of rural life as a whole by means of social policies (health, education), contracting between state and peasant farmers and reductions in tax levies.

Political decisions

But without real regional planning, measures aimed at promoting food production and rural life may well have no effect.

Rural development is induced and stimulated by the city. The city buys foodstuffs and raw materials from the country, offering in exchange manufactured and handicraft products and services.

City and country, urban and rural development, must be thought of in terms of each other. Controlled urban growth would seem to hold the key to agricultural development.

The "urban boom"—except where affecting the capital city alone—need not be seen as a disaster. If spread over a number of regional capitals, if guided intelligently and sponsored by the equitable allocation of public funds and of credit, urban growth can prove a boon; it is certainly a necessity for the creation of a domestic market, the absolute precondition for rural development.

Regional cities have various roles to play: ensuring the best return for agricultural produce, offering a wide range of employment possibilities, facilitating the distribution of new agricultural technology and providing a centre for information services and cultural and leisure activities. There should therefore come into being a whole network of regional cities, each providing a variety of specialized services related to production, consumption and trade.

These twin objectives—self-sufficiency in food and the coordinated development of a network of regional cities—necessarily involve political decisions and a machinery, the implementation of which will require that the steps taken and projects launched be largely decentralized.

These projects must harness local enterprise and mobilize both urban and rural populations, for it is up to these, finally, to see that their own projects succeed and are administered and developed within the general framework—as outlined by the politicians—of economic and regional development.

Always presuming that the countries concerned are agreed to this strategy and the European countries conclude genuine agreements with them. ○ Ch. D.-L.

The Agence Cooperation et Amenagement

This French agency for overseas planning and development is a non-profit-making association under French law, operating under the protection of the minister attached to the foreign secretary, responsible for cooperation and development, the minister for urban development and housing and the state secretary attached to the Prime Minister, responsible for questions regarding the national plan and decentralized planning, and with the cooperation of the minister for the environment.

The agency's aim is to help in the implementation of France's technical cooperation policy in the areas of regional development, the environment, urban and rural development and housing, notably:

- 1) by giving its assistance to French and foreign authorities as well as overseas bodies who are competent in these areas,
- 2) by mobilizing French expertise to meet the demands of French and foreign authorities while offering its own assistance where the need arises and
- 3) by organizing training programmes and information services for both foreign specialists and French experts.

How can the favela child be helped?

by Manzoor AHMED (*)

The image of the Third World as sprawling villages with most of the people earning their living from farming, animal raising and similar rural occupations no longer holds true. Almost 30 % of all Third World people already live in urban areas and it is projected that at least 44 % will be in the same situation by the year 2000. In all Latin America and parts of Asia, over 70 % of the people will live in cities by the end of the century.

1000 million slum-dwellers

The significant fact is not that the urban population is growing, but that it is growing at a breath-taking pace and, consequently, intensifying all the tensions and problems that already plague the large urban concentrations of the developing countries. The estimate is that during the last quarter of the century, the urban population in the cities will grow at four times the rate in the rural areas—at the rate of 3.7 % a year in the urban areas compared to just under 1 % in the villages. The expectation that the global rate of population growth may have already peaked and will continue to slow down does not offer any relief to the cities.

United Nations agencies have estimated that 30 % to 60 % of the urban people in the Third World are residents of slums and shanty towns, many of whom are regarded as illegal squatters, thus deprived of such minimum municipal amenities as water supply, roads, street lights and schools. On the whole, even by conservative calculation, 50 % of the city dwellers live in extreme poverty—unable to meet the basic needs of their families from their meagre earnings. This means that about 1000 million people will be in this category by the year 2000

and one third of that population will be children under age 15, including some 116 million under age 5.

Recession and "street children"

The urban problem, difficult enough in the past, has approached a crisis stage in such cities as Calcutta, Mexico City and Nairobi by the combination of the accelerating growth in number and the effects of economic recession. Children and women are the most vulnerable victims of this increasingly difficult situation. Malnutrition is rampant among the children of the *favela* and the slum. The break-up of families and the absence of the extended family support have given rise to the phenome-



Credit: VN (FAO)

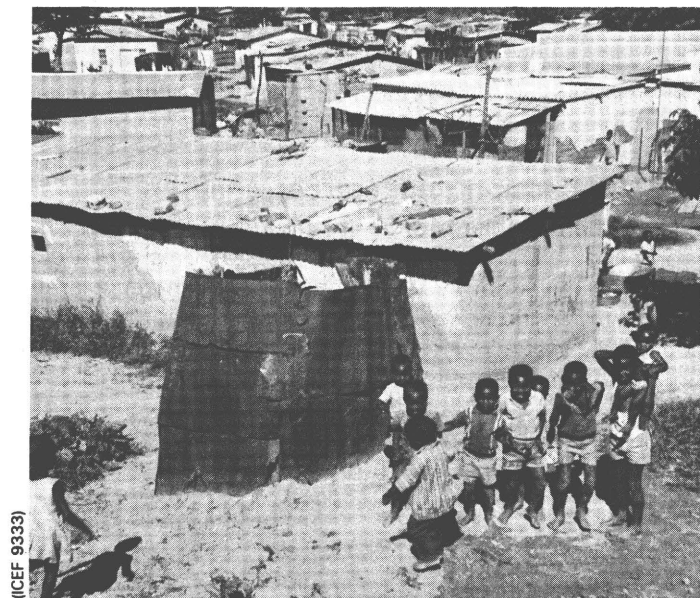
UN/FAO

"Children of the street" in a north-east Brazilian favela: can one talk of a future in their case?

non of "street children"—thousands of young children without families and homes living literally on the streets and surviving precariously by their wit and ingenuity. Health clinics, day-care services for young children and primary schools are not accessible to the majority, or the quality of service is utterly inadequate. Shelter and sanitation obviously are critical concerns for all low-income residents of cities.

The plight of the children in the urban slums has prompted UNICEF to make a special effort to collaborate with national governments and other national institutions in supporting what is called the urban basic services programme. A major concern of this programme is how to help children escape from the vicious cycle of poverty, malnutrition, poor family and home environment, inadequate educational opportunities and lack of prospects for a better life.

(*) UNICEF - New York.



(ICEF 9333)

Squatting in Lusaka (Zambia)...



ICEF 9333

and in Bangladesh — a mother's foreboding, a child's innocent smile



(ICEF 9333)

Destitution in Haiti (above) and Cairo, Egypt



ICEF 9333

The experience of voluntary organizations and UNICEF suggests that children of the slums, being deprived of the very basic amenities and services, can be helped only through a multi-faceted approach that deals in a substantial way with the totality of their condition of deprivation. The child care centres of urban neighbourhoods in Addis Ababa provide an example.

Addis Ababa's kebele centres

Two-thirds of 1.2 million residents of Addis Ababa live below the poverty line—deprived of essential public services and lacking a conducive environment for normal human development. In 1977, the municipality of Addis Ababa, together with a number of other concerned government, international and voluntary organizations including UNICEF, formed the International Coordinating Committee for Welfare and Development (ICC) to coordinate efforts for improving the essential services in the slums of Addis Ababa.

A survey conducted by the School of Social Work of the Addis Ababa University revealed that the vulnerable groups, particularly the young children, needed the most elementary forms of assistance—supplementary feeding for the seriously malnourished, health check-up, first aid and immunization for both children and mothers, and day-care centres for unattended children of working mothers. It was found that intellec-

tual development and early stimulation of children—a vital concern in promoting normal growth of the child—would be meaningful for the slum children in Addis Ababa only when these efforts were integrated with the efforts to improve their health and nutrition status. Moreover, any educational programme for the young child had to be extremely low-cost and supported essentially by the community—since the government lacked resources even for primary schools for all the children.

The ICC encouraged the *kebeles* or neighbourhood units of the municipality to open children's centres in any available building in the neighbourhood. The centres are supervised by an "instructor"—usually a young woman with primary education who had completed a three-month training in child care. Mothers take turns in assisting the instructor. ICC and UNICEF have helped in arranging the training of the instructors in a training centre of the Ministry of Education and have provided a small supply of educational materials, toys and furniture.

The *kebele* child care centres have become a focal point for health and nutritional care of children, education for mothers in child care and maternal health, as well as early psycho-social stimulation for children. Almost half of all *kebeles* in Addis Ababa had opened their own child care centres by 1982—about 100 centres in all. The centres complement other urban improvement activities also supported by ICC, such as income-earning activities for women of low-income families and rehabilitation of roads, houses and community facilities in one of the poorest localities of the city.

The favela programme in Rio

Rochina, a sprawling *favela* of 80 000 inhabitants on the southern outskirts of Rio de Janeiro, illustrates another multi-faceted approach in another region of the world. The mutual aid group of residents of Rochina known as *Mutirão* took the initiative to set up health clinics, cover the open sewerage ditches and dig drainage for storm water in order to compensate for the meagre health and sanitation services of the municipality. Soon the *Mutirão* found it necessary to turn its attention to the fact that almost 90 per cent of the children had no place in the only municipal school in the *favela*. With enthusiastic support of the community, a night school for adults and classes for children aged 3 to 10 were opened. These early community initiatives, with the cooperation of the Ric municipality's Secretariat for Social Development and UNICEF, gradually developed into a broader urban community development programme for the *favela*.

The comprehensive community development programme, managed and implemented by the community *Mutirão*, with support from the municipality and UNICEF, included over a period of two years between 1980-82 such projects as establishing three community schools both for adults and children, extending the sewerage system to 120 additional families, protecting the water tap, setting up trash collection, initiating health education and vaccination drives, chlorinating drinking water, and starting an education programme for pregnant mothers.

The community school — a focal point

Health, sanitation and education constitute a focus of



A UNICEF medical worker visiting children in a Colombian shanty-town

the programme for tackling some of the immediate and urgent problems faced by children and families in the *favela* with the resources that could be mobilized readily. The educational programme aimed at children as well as mothers and other adults provided a means for creating the awareness and knowledge necessary for the people to participate in a self-help process.

The importance of health in the child's overall development is reflected in the following measures incorporated into the community school programme:

- use of the weight-for-height growth chart to identify children in need of special attention,
- epidemiological surveillance and follow-up on vaccination to assure complete immunization,
- education of mothers in the care of young children and prevention of common health problems, and
- referral of children in need of attention to the health unit.

Parents, particularly mothers, take an active part in running the community school which serves young children as well as adults, and the teachers are all local residents who have been selected by the community and given some special orientation. The community school of Rochina, for the first time, offers early childhood care for pre-school children and opens up educational opportunities for children and adolescents whom the state school cannot accommodate.

Removing the handicaps

The problems of urban slum-dwellers and squatters cannot be solved without major improvements in national economies and far-reaching changes in social and economic structures. The urban basic services approach advocated by UNICEF and illustrated by the Addis Ababa and the Rochina stories indicates the possibility of alleviating the extremely negative consequences of the slum environment for children and removing at least some of the almost insurmountable handicaps that the *favela* and the slum children face. ○ M.A.

Project appraisal: the PAP method

by Jacques FAYETTE (*)

Projects that are well prepared, properly appraised and executed to plan are an essential part of the development process. All the international organizations, the World Bank, United Nations and the EDF, stress this point, and only recently UNCTAD drew attention to it.

Although many errors are made in developed countries, errors in developing countries are more serious since capital is in short supply. It is quite common to see projects that are poorly designed and working to only a fraction of their capacity, conditions for success that have not been checked, construction periods exceeding the scheduled deadlines, etc.

A successful project depends on three factors: trained manpower, strict preparatory methods and effective instruments of analysis.

We shall not go into the questions of training or preparation here. It must be said, however, that the latter tends to be neglected.

Having worked with various international organizations for more than 10 years, training executive staff at national level and preparing and analysing specific projects, we should like, in this article, to present the broad outline of a computerized method that we as consultants have developed for the EEC Commission's development directorate.

The ideas put forward are obviously our own and not the opinions of organizations with which we have worked. However, before presenting the instrument devised for the EEC's development directorate, we feel it is important to stress the aspect of project preparation.

This stage is not infrequently skimmed by some international or-

ganizations, and in this respect a special tribute is due to the International Labour Office which, using USAID procedures, has developed a particularly simple and functional procedure for preparing the project document.

Studies on the preparation and management of projects were presented in the papers given at the INTERNET (1) Congress held in Copenhagen in September 1982, and special mention should be made of the contribution made by Mr John Wallace of ILO.

A good project preparation document must specify:

- (i) the basic and immediate objectives of the project;
- (ii) the indicators to determine whether the objectives are achieved;
- (iii) the means of achieving these objectives;
- (iv) assumptions with regard to data, facts and contingencies.

The project document should represent the synthesis of these different points.

Computerized appraisal

All the major international organizations and some of the largest private banks have developed computerized procedures for project appraisal. Similarly, some of the largest computer software firms provide their customers with comprehensive financial analysis software which, amongst other things, gives an economic analysis of the project. One of the most comprehensive software systems in this area is the Financial Planning System developed by the Société de Traitement et de Services conversationnels (Scientific Time-Sharing Corporation) in APL. Before describing the basic features of the PAP system, we need to look at the basic requirements of a good computerized project appraisal method.

A good method of this kind must combine two sets of features, i.e. at content and use level.

As regards use, it must

- (i) be operable by people who are not computer specialists, i.e. people whose computer know-how is limited to operating the terminal;
- (ii) not require major hardware, a mini or even a microcomputer being sufficient;
- (iii) require very little training time for users (otherwise it would not be used enough);
- (iv) be very flexible, i.e. it must be adaptable to the countries and institutions concerned and the problems encountered;
- (v) be totally conversational (interactive mode), correct any errors at each stage and indicate quite clearly the various options.

As regards content, it must

- (i) offer maximum flexibility as regards input of data, whether technical, economic or financial;
- (ii) provide a range of standard functions for amortization and loan calculations and for chronological series, etc.;
- (iii) illustrate the diverging and converging interests of the various economic operators in a project;
- (iv) calculate the different economic and financial indicators in the project from the viewpoint of each operator involved;
- (v) produce clear and readily interpretable results;
- (vi) offer a wide spectrum of sensitivity analysis: time lag for certain data or series, variation in certain values, changes in exchange rates, inclusion of accounting prices, etc.

Most of the computerized methods used by the major international organizations meet all or most of these criteria.

The features of the PAP method are set out below in two parts.

Operation of PAP

The machine: PAP is on a medium-size computer (MITRA 225 from SEMS) with a memory of 256 K-bytes. This machine is much more powerful than required by PAP, which with certain minor adaptations can be quite easily operated on a micro-computer.

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(1) International Network Association.

PAP has been written in a particularly advanced language, namely APL. APL's development has for some years now been spectacular since it is flexible enough to allow a considerable reduction in the cost of developing programs. APL is now covered more and more by American and European universities, and the Commission is making a particular effort to promote this language by financing the development of APL interpreters for computers made by the main European manufacturers (ICL, CII, etc.).

PAP can be operated by persons with no knowledge of data processing and is totally conversational, with clear questions and information shown in the language chosen by the user (English and French are currently available but other languages can be added quite easily).

A working knowledge of PAP requires but a few hours for anyone with knowledge of project appraisal techniques.

PAP content

PAP offers the facility of being able to consider simultaneously several operators involved in one and the same project. A project can be appraised, for example, from the standpoint of the aid donor, the area concerned, the development bank or the balance of payments. There could be a direct evaluation of the economy with and without the project, and so on. The number of operators considered depends entirely on the user, there is no upper limit.

PAP offers simultaneous operation with several currency units, e.g. the national currency and one or more foreign currencies.

The section on data is particularly advanced in PAP. For example,

- (i) values can be input year by year;
- (ii) arithmetical or geometrical progressions can be created;
- (iii) investments with different methods of amortization (constant, progressive, American) can be input;
- (iv) loans with deferment periods can be input;
- (v) linear regressions can be calculated, etc.

PAP allows data input as a function of other data. The working capital

required for an industrial project, for example, will depend on sales, purchases, wages, production costs, etc. A program based on the working capital will allow it to be determined not only from the initial data, but also from changed data. If the user wishes to change sales and wages at a later stage, for example, the new working capital will be automatically recalculated without any intervention on the part of the user, an incomparably flexible facility which is almost impossible in a language other than APL.

PAP prints out results in a particularly simple style in line with standard accounting practice, either in detail, i.e. showing all the data relating to an operator, or in condensed form, i.e. with data grouped in sectors: investment fixed costs, variable costs, sales, etc.

These sectors are chosen by the user at the outset. Results printout is perfectly clear and can be added directly to a report without retyping of tables. Graphics are also a possibility.

PAP calculates a certain number of financial indicators for each operator:

- (i) net present value for a range of discounting rates indicated by the user;
- (ii) cost-benefit ratio for the same range of discounting rates;
- (iii) capital recovery period;
- (iv) internal rate of return.

The sensitivity analysis was specially developed in view of the uncertainty surrounding numerous project data and allows separate or simultaneous input of:

- (i) delays or advances on data or groups of data, e.g. 2-year delay in the achievement of maximum production capacity in a plant;
 - (ii) changes in the values of certain data, e.g. wage increase of 20% as from the third year of the project, 5% drop in cost of a raw material or group of raw materials, etc.;
 - (iii) change in rates of exchange, e.g. devaluation of the national currency, use of a different accounting price for the specific currency, etc.
- Sensitivity analysis by objective: the user may try, for example, to determine the sales level needed to obtain an internal rate of return of 12%; he may try to establish the equipment

subsidy level needed to ensure for a foreign investor a specific capital recovery period, and so on. All this is possible with PAP.

Conclusions

Being a recent development (though a second version is currently being set up), PAP obviously gains from the experience of other international organizations in project appraisal and from the experience of a number of private banks and computer companies. PAP can also be operated with great speed. Taking the example of the tea plantation project described in a document produced by the directorate-general for development (VIII/701/76 rev. 4): this would give the following work plan:

preparation of data for computer input: 1/2 day
data input: 2 hours
results and sensitivity analysis: several hours.

In about a day we can obtain results that would have taken more than a week's work using manual techniques, not to mention the tedious typing of dozens of pages of tables with the almost inevitable errors.

In PAP, the directorate-general for development therefore possesses a particularly rapid and efficient means of appraising projects, and not only production projects. Furthermore, the use of a single instrument gives complete standardization in document presentation, facilitates comparison between different projects and speeds up decision-making while giving the various operators maximum choice.

Now that this aid to decision-making is available in Brussels it can be made available to ACP states quite readily, thus enabling them to analyse their projects more thoroughly and to train the executive staff responsible for preparing the dossiers at government, undertaking and university level. The investment needed to set up this kind of computerised system is relatively slight, and PAP could be just one of a range of instruments made available to economic decision-makers to give them greater independence in the drafting of plans and projects. ○ J.F.

Who owns the Venus de Milo?

by Louis RONZE (*)

As centuries have passed and wars have been fought, works of art have changed hands, often in doubtful conditions. Should they be returned to their countries of origin? Would such a move endanger the cultural unity of the European Community?

The question of the return of works of art to their countries of origin has been raised several times in the *Courier*. It is a complicated issue which will not be settled in the near future, although a good deal of work has been done on it. A convention designed to prohibit the illicit exportation, importation or transfer of ownership of cultural works was adopted by the UN in 1970. By 1980 an inter-governmental committee had drawn up various principles for guidance in this area of cultural cooperation, on behalf of UNESCO, and Mauritian ambassador Raymond Chasle

(see *Courier* no. 67) was proposing that EEC countries "should undertake to do everything they can to give a favourable response to new requests addressed to them by ACP states which meet the UNESCO criteria".

The implicit assumption in this chapter of ACP-EEC cultural cooperation is that Community countries should consider returning at least some of the significant works of art that belong to the ACP cultural heritage. European museum curators (see *Courier* nos. 74 and 76) tend to argue that such works are part of the heritage of the world in general, their cultural significance having raised them above considerations of national ownership. But who "owns" a work of art that may have changed hands many times during the course of history? The following article points out some of the complications involved in the repatriation of

works of art within Europe itself, and so sheds more light on this aspect of EEC-ACP cultural cooperation.

A few months back, three Greek Euro-MPs tabled a motion for a resolution inviting the United Kingdom to return the Elgin Marbles. Not those little glass balls children play with, of course, but a collection of Greek sculptures, a substantial part of the frieze from the Parthenon in Athens, currently housed in the British Museum in London.

The European Parliament failed to adopt the suggestion by Messrs Ephemeridis, Adamou and Alavanos and there was no discussion of the matter. This does not mean that there is no problem. Witness the hesitation about lending the Venus de Milo (now in the Louvre) to a temporary exhibition in Athens, because of fears that the weight of public opinion in Greece would prevent the organizers from sending the work back to Paris.

So the unsuccessful proposal by the Greek Euro-MPs did raise the general issue of returning certain works of art—painting, statues, even whole buildings—to their countries of origin, which they often left in doubtful conditions. So here, in a united Europe, is a threat which, unless we are careful, could poison our cultural relations. We do not need that. The problem is such a terribly complex one, obscure even, that the countries which have tried to deal with it so far have done so on a case-by-case basis. The Council of Europe and UNESCO, certainly, have come out in favour of efficient protection of our artistic heritage against theft. But restitution has tended to remain a taboo subject. The Commission has recommended ratifying a convention UNESCO adopted in November 1970 on measures needed to ban and prevent the importation, exportation and transfer of illicitly owned cultural goods. But, in a communication to the Council of Ministers on 22 November 1977, the Commission said a certain degree of reservation was called for in respect of ratification of this convention, in particular to exclude any later contra-



Marcel Minnée

The Parthenon today—blown up by Venetian artillery in 1687, its treasures have been further scattered by the tides of history. Who really owns them?



The ivory mask used as a symbol of the black and African arts festival—kept in London, claimed by Nigeria

diction of its non-retroactivity. This is the only allusion—and a low-key one—to possible requests for restitution.

Lastly, a recent summit of ministers for culture in Mexico stressed, prudently, the advantages of replacing major works of art in their authentic environment. The three Greeks in fact expressly referred to this.

Acquisition or spoliation?

Before going any further, let us take a look at the famous Elgin Marbles. In 1799, Thomas, seventh earl of Elgin (and eleventh earl of Kinkardine), was made Great Britain's ambassador to the Sublime Port of Constantinople. He was a great lover of Greek art and asked the Turkish authorities for permission to list all the works of art on the Acropolis in Athens. This request was granted. He soon went further and asked if he could actually export some of these works. At that stage, the Ottoman Empire was totally unconcerned with Greek art and Lord Elgin's request was accepted. No doubt politics also played their part, as in 1799 Turkey had to cope with a French invasion in its Egyptian province and was seeking Great Britain's support. In 1803 Lord Elgin had part of the Parthenon

friezes dismantled and packed, at his own expense. But he was then recalled to London and it was not until 10 years later that he managed to get the marbles transported to London.

Curiously enough, the only voice raised in protest at the time did not come from among the Greeks—who had been reduced to silence by the sultan—but was that of an Englishman, the highly hellenophile Lord Byron, who accused Lord Elgin of being a vandal, anxious to get rich at the expense of the Greeks and of having capitalized on his diplomatic status to get the Turks to make him presents. But it has to be admitted that, in 1803, there was no reason to suppose the works of art that were being removed would have been safe from destruction if they had stayed put. Back in 1687, the Parthenon—then used as a mosque—had been seriously damaged by Venetian artillery when the ammunition stored in the sanctuary was blown up. After this, the Turkish authorities did nothing more than patch up a small mosque in the ruins.

The argument between the two lords provoked a British parliamentary commission to intervene. This exonerated Lord Elgin entirely, but recommended that the government buy the collection and make a gift of it to the nation. This was done in 1816. Lord Elgin got £35 000, far less than his estimated costs of £75 000, and the marbles were put in the British Museum.

The Elgin Marbles are by no means an isolated case. Some parts of the decorations from the Parthenon, for example, are in the Louvre, which also houses the Venus de Milo and the Victory of Samothrace, plus a number of other "acquisitions" made in the 19th century.

The Greek MPs wanted the friezes to be returned because they are part of the Greek national heritage. Almost all countries attach great importance to the preservation of this sort of heritage, which does not just mean art, as is proved by the Franco-Algerian quarrel over the archives of the old North African departments and the long story of the skull of Sultan Mkwawa of Tanganyika (1). For the Greek MPs, the removal of the Parthenon friezes was an illegal act—spoliation—because the

Greeks, muzzled by the Ottoman regime, were unable to oppose the operation as they would no doubt have done 30 years later when they were independent. But what is spoliation? Lord Elgin infringed no laws. He got permission. This is not the case of many other works of art that were removed, for example, by the winning side in wars—although it is reasonable to ask whether the ceding of property in a peace treaty constitutes a legally unimpeachable argument.

These were the conditions in which France replaced the top of the Brandenburg Gate (in Berlin) and the four bronze horses from Saint Mark's in Venice after the defeat of Napoleon. Yet the Venice case was far from clear and it underlines the ambiguity of a systematic desire to return works of art. The Venetians themselves had stolen the horses from Constantinople when they sacked the city in 1204. Could the Turks call for them to be returned to Istanbul today? But these horses have nothing to do with Turkish civilization. They are Hellenic art of the third century BC. Could Greece claim them? If it is considered that the Venetians are the rightful owners, we need to know how long it is before possession becomes 10 points of the law. Otherwise, Egypt could perfectly well ask for the return of the sculptures Hadrian took to Italy to decorate his villa near Tivoli. The question is far from being a theoretical one because the Louvre, for example, is still filled with works Napoleon removed from a number of European countries and which were never returned in 1815.

National heritage and European heritage

Going beyond the purely legal aspect of the problem, there are other questions too, not least the important issue of the role which the various nations assign to their cultural heritage. It will be said that it serves to remind people of and keep alive the identity of the community which

(1) Mkwawa was chief of the Quaahehe and committed suicide rather than surrender. To prevent his skull from becoming a symbol of resistance, the Germans removed it in 1898. Its return was written into article 241 of the Treaty of Versailles, but only became effective in 1954 when the skull was found in a furniture depot in Bremen.

it has seen emerge. A subsidiary question is that, today, this heritage also draws tourists and therefore plays a considerable economic role, which people often forget to mention.

But it is by no means certain that a given work is seen by the widest public in its place of origin. The splendid Benin bronzes only began to be appreciated after the British pillaged Benin in 1897; the influence of negro art over the artistic life of Europe would have been far weaker if the Bakouba statues of Zaire or the Dogon masks had stayed put, where there was no reception structure at the time. This does not prevent Nigeria from calling for the return of some work from Benin (the ivory mask which was used as the emblem of the Lagos festival of black and African art is still housed in London), or Zaire from calling for the transfer of most of the works in the Africa museum in Tervuren near Brussels.

Further complications arise from the fact that a cultural community is also desired within the EEC. It has almost been forgotten that the summits of heads of state and government have called for this on a number of occasions. In the Hague in 1972, the final declaration stressed the fact that Europe was an exceptional centre for culture and that this culture had to be protected. In Copenhagen (1973) another declaration, on European identity, confirmed the idea that culture is one of the fundamental elements of this Community identity. Countries are not watertight cultural compartments (thank the Lord!), but a continuous culture

in time and space. Consider the fact that a vast part of European art is directly inspired by Greece: Greek works, part of Europe's artistic heritage, are therefore equally at home in Paris, London, Berlin or Rome. If this were not the case, Metz could well call for the famous statue of Charlemagne on horseback to be taken out of the Louvre and sent back, on the grounds that this work has nothing to do with the art of the Ile-de-France.

One last aspect of the affair of the possible return of works of art is the very relative importance of the authenticity of the piece in question. Techniques of reproduction—of painting, sculpture and building—are such today that it would be perfectly possible to satisfy the pro-restitution faction and the possession faction by distributing copies. One of the caryatids of the Erechtheion of the Acropolis in Athens is a copy—this does not make the uninformed admirer any the less enthusiastic, although, obviously, once he knows it is not the original, his enthusiasm wanes.

No cultural chauvinism

What is the conclusion to be drawn from all this? The current dispersion of works of art across the Community must not serve as a pretext for a fresh outburst of revengeful chauvinism, with cultural pretensions, in many cases, masking commercial motives. Certainly, everyone likes to see the Viking drakkars—the famous Ladby Skibet, for example—on display in Denmark and in Norway rather than in the Alhambra gardens

in Grenada. But these ships would by no means be out of place off Tarento or in the mouth of the Seine, which, a thousand years ago, in fact was their authentic environment. And the fact that the works of sculptors like Thorvaldsen are in Copenhagen rather than in Rome, or those of Canova in Rome rather than in Copenhagen, is really only historical chance. The statues of the two artists are inspired by the same classical ideal and they would be at home anywhere in Europe. I should even go so far as to say that Thorvaldsen's statue of Christ in Vor Frue Kirke in Copenhagen is incongruous in this Protestant church, which is in fact its authentic environment.

So what about the countless works of art created at the whim of princes and men of the church in the four corners of Europe? Canaletto painted a wonderful series of paintings (now on display in London) for British merchants and his compatriot, Tiepolo, decorated the palace of the Prince and Bishop of Würzburg. The German brothers Lukas, on the other hand, painted frescoes all over the walls of the Massimo palace in Rome. And the Cretan-Italian El Greco became a typical representative of Spanish painting. Cuvilliès, a Belgian, put up some charming pavilions in Munich and Sluter, a Dutchman, created some of his finest works in the Dijon area. Holbein, a German, did most of his work in Great Britain and a whole host of French painters (de Cotte, de Pigage, la Guépière, etc.) built and decorated castles, furnished their interiors and designed their gardens for the German princes of the XVIIIth century.

Who would belittle this extraordinary wealth of art by forcing it into the artificial, narrow framework of the national heritage in which neither patrons of the arts nor artists nor art lovers would be at home?

While we must avoid any repetition of the pillaging of olden times—and more recently (remember Goering's appetite for art)—we must also beware of a deliberate policy of restitution, as this could only revive a constraining compartmentalization of Europe in a field where, more than anywhere else, free exchange is the basis of any creative activity. That field is art in the European Community. ○ Louis RONZE



A model of the Venice Lagoon which will help researchers trying to save the city from sinking. A living work of art, Venice cannot simply be considered an Italian responsibility

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PROJECT PROMOTION IN THE EEC

KEEN GREEK INTEREST IN INDUSTRIAL COOPERATION



Mr Constantine Vaitos (left) Secretary of State responsible for industry at the Ministry of the National Economy, addressing CID's project promotion meeting in Athens.

On 28 June CID held a project promotion meeting in Athens which brought together the three major organizations responsible for industry in Greece: The Federation of Greek Industries, the Athens Chamber of Commerce and Industry and HOMMEH (The Hellenic Organization of Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises and Handicrafts). All cooperated in organizing the meeting. This was the first CID project meeting to be held in Greece.

The meeting was attended by 35 people including representatives of the Ministry of Industries and the Ministry of Foreign/EEC Affairs. The attendance also included several highly motivated Greek companies who looked positively at the possibilities for industrial cooperation available through CID. These companies afterwards participated in over a dozen separate discussions with CID staff to examine particular projects. These discussions covered projects such as wire-drawing, coffee-roasting, a particle-board plan, the manufacture of kitchen and hospital sinks, textiles, baby food and solar panels.

GREEK PRESIDENCY

The main role of the meeting was to let Greece know of the industrial

and commercial potential of cooperation with ACP states. The meeting also reviewed the institutional framework which has been established to facilitate such cooperation.

The meeting was timely as Greece was coming into prominence as incoming President of the ACP-EEC Council of Ministers which will be initiating negotiations in September for the next ACP-EEC Convention.

DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE FUND

An issue highlighted during the meeting was the need for Greece to provide a development assistance fund which could cover the risks to which Greek industrialists might be exposed when investing in ACP countries. Such a fund could also assist with the financing of ACP/Greek

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industrial projects and could promote contacts between Greek industry and ACP entrepreneurs.

DE-INDUSTRIALIZATION

The CID meeting in Athens was also addressed by Mr Constantine Vaitos, who is Secretary of State responsible for industry at the Ministry of the National Economy. Mr Vaitos said that the Greek economy had recently been experiencing de-industrialization evidenced by a diminution in exports and an increase in imports. He saw potential for expansion in the Greek economy through industrial cooperation and trade with ACP states. He added that Greece would have to see what policy adjustments would be required to facilitate such trade and cooperation.

Mr P. Poulis, General Manager of the Commercial Bank of Greece, told the meeting that his bank so far provided finance only for domestic activities but said that it is now thinking of extending this financing to projects which come within the framework of ACP-EEC industrial cooperation.

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RELOCATION OF INDUSTRY

The Federation of Greek Industries (FGI) has agreed to accept the role of CID antenna and Mr M. Coumpas, FGI's Head of International Relations, said that ACP countries are entering an industrial stage which Greece is now starting to leave behind. He explained that Greek entrepreneurs, due to prevailing economic conditions, are beginning to orient themselves towards more sophisticated

to even new products. They are tending to move out of those traditional industrial goods usually manufactured on a small scale with classic and tested technology. Greek industry is therefore restructuring itself and this makes industrial cooperation with ACP states all the more attractive.

Mr Coumpas pointed out that Greek entrepreneurs can relocate their traditional activities in ACP countries where markets are usually protected and unsaturated. He went on to say that the products manufactured in ACP states can also be ex-

ported and that the profits resulting from such ventures can be used by Greek entrepreneurs to finance new activities at home. Mr Coumpas also remarked that many Greek entrepreneurs, because of traditional links and geographic position, are familiar with the ACP environment.

Other speakers included Dr V. Papandreou, President of the HOMMEH and Mr A. Kyriazis, Vice-President of the Athens Chamber of Commerce and Industry. The meeting was chaired by Mr J. Stratos, Vice-President of the Federation of Greek Industries. ■

PROJECT PROMOTION MEETING

CARIBBEAN PROJECTS ATTRACT EUROPEAN INDUSTRY

CID recently held a two-day industrial project promotion meeting for the Caribbean. During this event nearly 200 separate meetings were held between EEC industrialists and Caribbean entrepreneurs.

The meeting took place in Brussels on 21 and 22 June to promote 31 industrial projects in the Caribbean. It was attended by 20 Caribbean project sponsors and 57 EEC companies. There were also 36 observers present from banks, development organisations, financial institutions, embassies and the Commission of the European Communities.

European industry showed an active interest in most of the projects. It is encouraging that the Caribbean sponsors were invited to make nearly 40 visits to EEC factories in the days following the meeting.

His Excellency, Mr Harold Sahadeo,

Ambassador of Guyana to the European Communities, was one of the two guest speakers at the meeting. He said that ACP countries "should not abandon industry" in order to concentrate on food strategies. "There is no conflict", he added, "between industry and agriculture in our development".

The ambassador argued that the Caribbean has considerable industrial potential in addition to the traditional sugar, rum, banana and rice industries. He referred to the region's timber resources, its minerals, its potential for tourism, fishing and light

industries.

Ambassador Sahadeo remarked that Caribbean ACP States "are well placed for the development of a closer relationship with EEC countries". He continued: "The infrastructure already exists, both for sea and air transport. The long history of contact between the two areas ensures that there are few, if any, surprises for potential investors".

The second guest speaker was Mr Pat Thompson, Executive Director of the Caribbean Association of Industry and Commerce. His speech is summarised below. ■

PROMOTING INVESTMENT IN THE CARIBBEAN

A CARIBBEAN BUSINESSMAN'S GUIDELINES FOR INVESTORS

Mr Pat Thompson, Executive Director of the Caribbean Association of Industry and Commerce, told CID's industrial project promotion meeting for the Caribbean that the region needs investment. It has, he said, uniformly high rates of unemployment raging from 10% to 30%. There is also, he added, an inadequate availability of foreign exchange. Some of the main features of Mr Thompson's speech are summarised in this article.

Caribbean countries have differences in size, population and wealth. But they also have a number of similarities. They have a common language (En-

glish), and a similar cultural heritage. They have essentially similar economies (which is in fact one of the problems of the area). The economies rest

in most cases on one or two major agricultural crops. These are sugar, rice, bananas, spices. They also depend on a few major mineral re-

sources, oil for example in Trinidad & Tobago, bauxite in Jamaica and Guyana; and of course almost everywhere tourism—the sea, the sun and the sand.

ROLES FOR INVESTORS

There are six major roles which investors might play in the Caribbean:

1. To supplement inadequate levels of domestic savings and investment.
2. To impact favourably on current levels of unemployment and underemployment.
3. To generate exports, especially extra-regional exports, so as to boost the present insufficient level of foreign exchange earnings.
4. To raise levels of technology and technical skills in the region, including overall managerial expertise.
5. To provide markets in addition to the regional market.
6. To stimulate and support indigenous national or regional research, especially in those areas which appear to offer a potential comparative export advantage with the industrial use of indigenous raw material inputs.

In terms of this matter of competitive access to extra-regional markets on which is a great deal of emphasis these days, there has been an important new initiative. This is a United States initiative which is called the CBI (Caribbean Basin initiative). Essentially the idea is for a one-way, that is non-reciprocal, twelve-year duty-free access to the United States market for most Caribbean products.

This could be of interest to European joint-venture partners who may be able to use the trained labour resources of the Caribbean and the skills of joint-venture partners, to gain access on duty-free terms to the immense US market.

AGRICULTURE, TOURISM, SHIPPING

What might one invest in the Caribbean? Firstly, there is a tremendous scope in non-sugar agriculture. If you are going to look at sugar in the Caribbean, do look at sugar not as a traditional agricultural product but possibly as a raw material input for industrial applications. One example is what the Brazilians have done in gasahol. There are other interesting possibilities in the chemical industry that do require research and work.

There is also scope in tourism and not only in the traditional part of tourism, the building up hotels and guest houses and so on, but in a number of the ancillary activities that support the tourist industry like water sports and other recreational activities.

There is still a great deal of scope for investment in a number of infrastructural things in the Caribbean. Notably shipping. Two of the things that bedev-



Mr Pat Thompson (right) speaking at CID's project promotion meeting for the Caribbean. Also in the picture (left to right) are His Excellency Harold Sahadeo, Ambassador of Guyana to the EEC; Dr. Isaac Akinrele, Deputy Director CID; and Mr Daniel Nairac, CID officer responsible for ACP Island States.

vil industrialisation in the Caribbean are the high freight rates (particularly to Europe) and the lack of inter-island, intra-Caribbean, shipping services.

TOP PRODUCT GROUPS

The Caribbean offers tremendous scope in a wide range of light industrial manufacturing activities.

There is a study being done by the International Trade Centre (UNCTAD/GATT) in Geneva. Phase one of this study came up with a list of 500 companies in the Caribbean which have export potential and could export more than they are doing at present. For the purpose of this article we can narrow this down to ten product groups which would have the greatest immediate export potential. These are:

1. Perfumes, cosmetics, essential oils.
2. Cut flowers, foliage, ornamental plants.
3. Table linen, towels and similar items.
4. Ground and packaged spices.
5. Ornamental aquarium fish.
6. Jams and jellies, especially purées and similar preparations.
7. Prawns and shrimps, dried and smoked fish.
8. Leather goods.
9. Soaps and detergents (particularly for industrial use).
10. Packaging materials of various kinds.

HELPFUL AGENCIES

There are a number of agencies in the Caribbean who can assist European investors. There is, for instance, the Caribbean Association of Industry and Commerce (CAIC). This will help ser-

ious investors with contacts, with follow-ups, with references and so on, from its secretariat in Barbados. There is also the Caribbean Project Development Facility (CPDF) which is based in Washington.

There is the Project Development Assistance Programme (PDAP). This is a Coopers Lybrand/USAID project which is based in Barbados and has field people in most of the eastern Caribbean countries. It will help with feasibility studies and further development.

The Caribbean Development Bank (CDB) in Barbados, also does work of this kind. The CARICOM Secretariat, in Guyana, will also help. As will the economic division of the Organisation of Eastern Caribbean States, which is based in Antigua.

SOURCES OF FINANCE

There are some commercial banks operating in the Caribbean. Both local ones and overseas ones. There are six major international commercial banks: one English (Barclays), two American (Chase and City) and three Canadian (Royal, Bank of Canada and Nova Scotia and the Canadian Imperial Bank of Commerce). In addition, there are merchant banks; and there are now off-shore banks in various jurisdictions including Barbados. There are also local commercial banks, either government-owned or private, in most of the territories. These are sources of working capital finance, short-term finance. Finance up to 5 or 7 years for the most part.

There is the Caribbean Development Bank (CDB) which is an intra-regional government development bank, which also lends to the private sector and

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PROJECTS IN THE PACIFIC

EEC INDUSTRIAL PARTNERS WANTED



At the time of going to press CID was promoting the following projects for the Pacific meeting due to take place in November (see page 5). EEC companies seriously interested in any of these projects and who would like to receive an invitation to the Pacific meeting, should contact CID quoting the reference number of the relevant project. The EEC companies should state the kind of involvement which they envisage and should give a brief description of their operations. CID can provide more detailed information on any project and will indicate the kind of assistance it can provide.

Organisations reprinting these offers in their own publications are asked to ALWAYS include the CID reference numbers.

INDUSTRIAL CATEGORY	REFERENCE	COUNTRY	NATURE OF PRODUCT	WHAT ACP SPONSOR SEEKS
TOURISM	83/54 a	TONGA	Existing EEC-Tongan joint venture company is developing a "close to nature" tourist resort. This resort might be used as a pilot project for developing clean energy adapted technologies.	Introduction to tour operators; and technical information on solar/wind energy.
BUTTON-MAKING	83/55 a	SOLOMON ISLANDS	Buttons from shells. Planned starting capacity: 10 million regular buttons p.a.; 1.4 million fancy buttons p.a. Estimated capital investment: US \$ 105,000. New project to be developed by existing company producing handicrafts.	Technical, training, and marketing assistance; and, if possible, an equity participation.
CHEMICALS & PHARMACEUTICALS	83/56 a	PAPUA NEW GUINEA	Laundry soap: 350 tons p.a. Coconut and palm oil available locally. Caustic soda to be imported. New project.	Installation, technical and training assistance, and management.
	83/57 a	WESTERN SAMOA	Existing copra oil mill wishes to create a 500 metric tonne/month coconut oil esterification plant.	Joint venture partner. Equity and technical assistance.
FOOD & DRINK	83/58 a	KIRIBATI	Coconut oil production; and subsidiary manufacture of soap and detergent. Capacity 15 000 t/y of copra throughput. New project.	Technical joint venture partner who will also take a share of the equity.
	83/59 a	TONGA	Production of cassava pellets for animal feed, for export mainly to regional markets. Capacity 100 000 tonnes of pellets. New project.	Equity and technical partner. Marketing assistance.
	83/60 a	TONGA	Chicken hatchery planned by largest Tongan poultry and egg producer. Planned capacity 5 000 chicks weekly (to be increased later).	Technical partner to develop hatchery and to help expand it afterwards. Equity available for joint venture.
	83/61 a	VANUATU	Existing private company producing ± 15 tons frozen "achatinæ" snail meat per month wishes to increase production and to start a canning operation.	Equity and technical joint venture partner plus marketing assistance.
	83/62 a	VANUATU	Copra oil mill. Capacity 30 000 tons. New project.	Private investor to set up and run the plant with the possibility that government would take a share of the equity in the first five years.
	83/63 a	VANUATU	Existing company (slaughterhouse, frozen meat and canning) situated on Santo island wishes to extend and diversify canned products.	Joint venture partner to participate in equity and provide know-how and marketing assistance.
	83/64 a	VANUATU	Existing meat canning operation situated in Port-Vila (Efate Island) wishes to extend and diversify production.	Equity, know-how and marketing partner.
	83/65 a	SOLOMON ISLANDS	Fruit juice from mangoes, paw paw, oranges, lemons, pineapples. The project is in its initial phase and is to be developed in conjunction with a newly established soft drinks operation.	Joint venture partner to participate in equity and to provide technical and marketing assistance.
	83/66 a	WESTERN SAMOA	Expansion of current production of 300 000 gallons of tropical wines to triple capacity. Diversification of products (liqueurs, brandies, etc.) to suit potential markets.	Marketing and technical partner who could also take a share of the equity.
	83/67 a	WESTERN SAMOA	Expansion of honey production for export and the development of by-products (pollen, wax, propolis, royal jelly).	Technical and marketing partner who could also take a share of the equity.
	83/68 a	WESTERN SAMOA	Expansion and restructuring of an integrated cattle and dairy complex for import substitution. The company at the moment owns $\pm 9 000$ heads of cattle and ± 300 milking cows. The project also aims to improve the processing infrastructure. Imports in 1981 for dairy and meat products were \pm US \$ 4 m.	Joint venture partner to provide technical know-how and management. Equity partnership possible.
LEATHER, PLASTIC & RUBBER	83/69 a	FIJI	P.V.C. leather bags (sports, shopping bags, etc.) for local market and for export to neighbouring countries. Total current investment of this existing company: \pm US \$ 250 000.	Joint venture partner for equity, technical design and marketing assistance.

INDUSTRIAL CATEGORY	REFERENCE	COUNTRY	NATURE OF PRODUCT	WHAT ACP SPONSOR SEEKS
LEATHER, PLASTIC & RUBBER (continued)	83/70 a	FIJI	Existing company manufacturing (since 1982) injection and blow-moulded plastic wares, wishes to increase and diversify its production.	Technical and commercial partner capable of providing moulds and wishing to export products to regional markets (e.g. Australia and New Zealand).
	83/71 a	PAPUA NEW GUINEA	Plastic articles. Estimated investment: US \$ 1 million. Buckets: 60,000 p.a., waste paper baskets: 11 000 p.a., plates: 8 300 p.a., fancy bowls: 166 000 p.a., tumblers: 167 000 p.a.	Joint venture partner to take a share of the equity and to provide assistance with marketing.
METALWORKING	83/72 a	VANUATU	Barbed wire. Planned capacity 10 000 rolls of 400 metres per annum. Wire mesh and nail production also envisaged. New project.	Second hand equipment and technical assistance required.
	83/73 a	WESTERN SAMOA	An engineering company has developed a biomass burner that it wishes to market in the Pacific, and apply to various uses such as agricultural dryers, boilers, bakery ovens.	Joint venture partner able to provide equity, technical and marketing assistance—and capable of bringing technology for developing gas generators for dual-combustion engines.
TIMBER (AND ITS BY-PRODUCTS)	83/74 a	FIJI	Sugar producing company has developed wafer board from cane rind for the local market and export. Company wishes to adapt the product for low cost housing applications. Planned production: 160 000 units p.a. Capital costs are ±US \$ 1.65 m.	Joint venture partner capable of helping develop and market the product.
	83/75 a	FIJI	Paper boards, egg trays and paper bags made from recycled paper. Planned production: 150 tons of paper board p.a., 75 tons of trays p.a. Estimated turnover: US \$ 550 000; estimated investment: ±US \$ 500 000. New project.	Joint venture partners willing to participate in equity, to provide technical and training assistance and to help locate secondhand equipment.
	83/76 a	PAPUA NEW GUINEA	Manufacture of coir, to export needled coir fibre pads to Australia. Estimated investment: US \$ 440 000. New project.	Technical and equity joint venture partner.

PROJECT PROMOTION MEETING

ATTRACTING INDUSTRY TO THE PACIFIC

To assist industrial investment by EEC business in the ACP Pacific States, CID is convening a project promotion meeting which will take place in Vanuatu on 28 and 29 November.

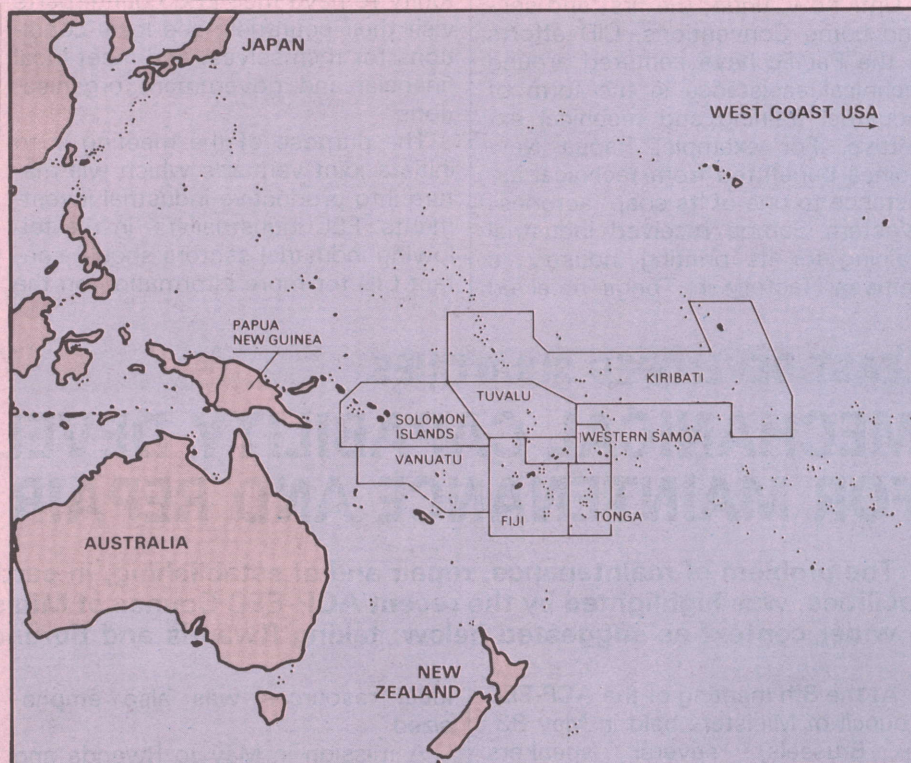
Some twenty three industrial projects of varying sizes (see page 4) have been identified by successive missions undertaken by consultants and CID staff. The Pacific sponsors have indicated how keen they are to bring their projects to the implementation stage. From August through to October, CID is identifying European industrialists interested in investing in these projects; and who will develop them through joint-ventures with the Pacific sponsors.

INVESTMENT ATTRACTIONS

Friendly islands, white sandy beaches, coconut trees and sweet sea breezes are the standard images which the word Pacific usually evokes. Distance also. Few European industrialists would know with precision where Papua New Guinea or Tuvalu, Fiji or Kiribati, Vanuatu, Tonga Solomon Islands or Western Samoa are situated, let alone what they can offer to a western European businessman.

And yet, there are enough reasons why EEC businessmen should look at

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This map shows the eight Pacific ACP countries with their large maritime areas and their geographic positions vis-à-vis Australia, New Zealand, Japan, South East Asia and the West Coast of the USA.

(continued from page 6)

"the underside of the world" as a place in which to invest: the raw materials and resources available in these countries; their geographical situation between the West Coast of the USA, Japan, South East Asia, Australia and New Zealand; the potential economic growth of the Pacific basin; and trade and tariff agreements, like the Lomé Convention with the EEC and the Sparteca with Australia and New Zealand.

Admittedly handicaps do exist: distance from Europe; small and fragmented local markets; relatively expensive regional shipping. All are obstacles that must be overcome. They need not, however, be insurmountable.

The ACP Pacific Island States are indeed friendly islands, but not in the middle of nowhere. They can modestly pretend to develop their economic base by industrialisation, with imaginative investments from industrialists, in selected sectors. They can hope to form a base for the production of goods aimed at Australia and New Zealand (signatories of the Sparteca trade agreement), at Europe through the Lomé Convention, and at Japan and the USA in whose economic orbit they revolve.

CID IN THE PACIFIC

Until now, under the first and second Lomé Conventions, CID efforts in the Pacific have centered around technical assistance in the form of industrial training and technical expertise. For example, Papua New Guinea benefitted from technical assistance to one of its soap factories; Western Samoa received industrial training for its printing industry; a knitwear factory in Tonga received

training and marketing assistance from CID; technical assistance was given to a small mirror silvering operation in Fiji; the Solomon Islands' soft drinks industry is having technicians trained with CID assistance; CID helped the marketing efforts of Vanuatu's mother of pearl button industry.

In Western Samoa and Vanuatu, CID-assisted projects also involve potential investment by EEC partners. German investors have indicated their interest in investing in a new industry in Western Samoa (and possibly also Vanuatu) which will convert coconut shells into gas, charcoal and activated carbon; and in Vanuatu negotiations are under way with a French joint venture partner, for the rehabilitation of a new factory to produce mother-of-pearl buttons from trochas shells.

PROMOTION MEETING

At the November meeting in Vanuatu, the Pacific sponsors will be able to present their projects to EEC industrialists. These EEC industrialists will have been selected for the seriousness of their intent and for their technical and financial ability to help bring the Pacific projects to implementation. After the meeting, the Pacific sponsors will have the opportunity to have their EEC counterparts visit their countries, see local conditions for themselves, and meet local financial and government organisations.

The purpose of the meeting is to initiate joint ventures which will mature into productive industrial investments. EEC industrialists' in the following industrial sectors should contact CID for more information on the

Pacific projects and to discuss prospects for investment and for attending the Vanuatu meeting:

- Wood and furniture
- Fishing
- Processing coconuts and their by-products
- Agro-industrial transformation of meat
- Dairy and poultry products
- Fruit and vegetables
- Animal feed
- Light engineering and light electrical products
- Renewable and "soft" energies.

TRIANGULAR JOINT VENTURES

It is important to note that business circles in Australia, New Zealand and French overseas territories, have indicated their interest in participating in this meeting, and that there will be possibilities for creating "triangular" joint ventures. In that context and because of its close involvement with economic development in the South Pacific, SPEC (the South Pacific Bureau for Economic Cooperation) will help coordinate efforts to attract and select businessmen from non-EEC and non-ACP countries in the region.

TRAVEL INCENTIVES

CID will finance the costs of the ACP sponsors who attend; and incentives will also be available for EEC industrialists willing to travel to Vanuatu.

The full purpose of this exercise is to initiate joint-ventures for productive industrial investment. It will also put the ACP Pacific States in evidence among specialized business circles in Europe. ■

LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

MECHANICAL CAPABILITY DEVELOPMENT FOR MAINTENANCE AND REPAIR

The problem of maintenance, repair and of establishing, in particular rural industries and energy facilities, was highlighted by the recent ACP-EEC Council of Ministers and could maybe be seen in a wider context as suggested below, taking Rwanda and Burundi as examples.

At the 8th meeting of the ACP-EEC Council of Ministers held in May 83, in Brussels, several speakers stressed the importance of maintenance and repair facilities. The need for more use of local raw materials and for the creation of energy from

local resources was also emphasized.

A mission in May to Rwanda and Burundi by the Director of CID and Mr. Alioune Ndiaye, Chargé de Mission for Information Services, specifically encountered the need for solu-

tions to such problems.

Apart from the usual maintenance and repair problems in these countries, particularly related to existing industries such as for tea and coffee, Rwanda and Burundi have a most particular need for rural industrial de-

velopment to create employment in the rural areas where arable land expansion is becoming more difficult.

RURAL INDUSTRY

Many ideas and plans exist in ACP countries for the establishment of rural industries. However, the provision of extension services for the creation of independent small industries, particularly in rural areas, is extremely expensive as shown by many studies undertaken around the world, and at the same time it is often very inefficient.

To attack these problems and, not least, the problem of maintenance and repair of existing facilities, transport equipment, etc., one factor that is generally overlooked is the need for the creation of special industries, development enterprises, as called by the CID, to facilitate the in-plant training of higher skilled technicians who can undertake such work and who may be multipliers in facilitating the development of smaller new industries.

There is in most countries always some basic training undertaken in vocational technical schools, however there are extremely few facilities where these initially trained people can go and get their skills upgraded to become specialized repairmen, workshop managers, and the creators of new simple facilities, as may be used in the rural areas.

In Europe, the industry provides

costly training for engineers and higher skilled technicians/workers after they have left their basic training institutions. They will normally be able to retain such people or, if not, to recruit some in the open market with a similar type of training. In the poorer developing countries, a highly skilled technician, if and when he has been trained by industry, can usually go to another company to increase his salary most significantly and the company that has trained him may thus have lost a significant investment.

COST OF TRAINING

This is why most of the industries established in ACP countries in particular today, contain a very small training component and thus a small multiplication factor. It is simply not commercially viable to train maintenance technicians, foremen, etc. for more in-depth type of engineering work; thus, the emphasis is on simpler industries, like bottling, garments, plastic machine operator training, etc., i.e. only for semi-skilled operators.

CID has offered its services to Rwanda and Burundi to provide assistance for the establishment of Rural Industrial Development Enterprises which would be enterprises possibly based on rehabilitation and agglomeration of existing industries together with an input from a European group of companies, to provide

know-how, additional finance for rehabilitation, expansion, etc.

USING AID FOR TRAINING

CID is promoting the idea that the ACP governments should participate with private industry in the ACP countries in creating mixed (development) enterprises where the government should apply some of its technical assistance aid for training of the essential "cadres" to help solve the repair and maintenance problems and the problem of rural industrial development. As it is not easy to get governments to appreciate this complex problem of channelling assistance for training into productive enterprises, the CID could usefully apply much more technical assistance funds for more in-depth training. The training assistance and expertise that CID can offer today, are usually limited to a few months of training to remove bottlenecks in existing factories, or just to get smaller factories started.

An essential aspect in developing such projects is also the establishment of Industrial Cooperation Experts who may diagnose existing industries while establishing the local needs and potentials for such enterprises. Both countries are extremely interested in this programme, however, it appears that only one of the countries may have EDF funds available for its implementation. ■

CARIBBEAN BUSINESSMAN'S ADVICE

(Continued from page 3)

lends money long term (15-20 years in appropriate instances). Their attraction is the length of term, not a reduced rate of interest. More and more, the rate of interest is commercial. But for worthy projects, you can get 15 or 18 year money, sometimes 20 year money.

GUIDELINES FOR INVESTORS

1. Equity. It is still possible to have wholly-owned subsidiaries or majority-owned equity companies in various parts of the Caribbean. However, if it is a large-scale investment, it is a good thing to think of a joint venture operation ceding majority equity to your Caribbean joint venture partner either initially, right up front, or over a defined

period of time and in some mutually agreed pre-arranged form. By all means in such circumstances, retain substantial minority equity.

2. Labour Relations. Where a clear majority of the eligible employees in the work unit created by your joint venture demand it, do recognize the union of their choice and treat equitably with it.

3. Training. Where feasible, install some kind of on-going training programme, especially for up-grading technical skills but also to broaden and deepen managerial expertise.

4. Technology. Introduce technology which is appropriate to local conditions. Other things being equal, let it be labour-intensive rather than capital-intensive, but only if that is an economic proposition.

5. Research. If practicable, encourage indigenous research, especially in areas providing new uses for local raw materials as inputs for manufacturing industry.

6. Markets. Bring as one of your contributions as a foreign investor, access for your joint venture investment to extra-regional markets.

7. Reinvestment. As conditions allow, plough back a proportion of your profits. And we want you to be profitable. Above all, take the long view. The Caribbean has had enough in the past of investors who want to come, take advantage of the tax holiday and get back out again. What the Caribbean really needs now, is investors who, whether they get a tax holiday or not, will take a longer view of investment in the area. In short, be as good a corporate citizen in the Caribbean as you would be at home in Europe.

I realize that that is a daunting list of requests and requirements. My own view is that modern European companies are efficient enough, sophisticated enough, experienced enough, to rise to the demanding but potentially rewarding roles and guidelines that I have outlined. ■



OFFERS FROM EEC FIRMS

ACP ENTREPRENEURS PLEASE REPLY

ACP entrepreneurs are invited to contact CID, quoting the reference number, in response to any offer outlined in this section. ACP entrepreneurs must supply CID with background information about their industrial and commercial activities. They must also provide a short assessment of the viability of the proposed project, giving details of the potential market.

Organisations reprinting these offers in their own publications, are asked to ALWAYS include the CID reference numbers.

Detergents — produced on a small scale

German offer — Ref. 83/80a

A medium-sized German detergent manufacturer seeks ACP partners for the small-scale manufacture of washing powders and liquid detergents.

After assessment of what would be the most suitable product line, the company would lend its advice for the selection and acquisition of the necessary equipment (approximately US \$100,000 FOB for a washing powder unit with a capacity of 500 kg/hour). The German company would also make available its recipes and know-how in the framework of a joint venture agreement.

Lime and crushed limestone

Belgian offer — Ref. 83/81a

A Belgian company very experienced in the quarrying of limestone and in the production of quick or hydrated lime (in bulk or in bags), is interested in extending its operations to projects in ACP countries.

The minimum capacities envisaged by the Belgian company are:

- around 100 000 tons/year of stone
- about 20 tons/day of lime

The investment level will depend upon the size of the deposit in any quarry and its production potential.

The company is open to joint venture agreements. It can offer knowhow and

assistance with marketing. This assistance could also be applied to products derived from lime.

Cables, taps, screws and bolts

Danish offer — Ref. 83/77a

A leading Danish company is prepared to consider manufacturing any of the following products in an ACP country:

- Electric cables: minimum capacity of 4 000 t/year for an investment of about US \$3 million

- Sanitary taps: minimum capacity of 100 000 pieces/year for an investment of about US \$1.75 million

- Bolts and screws: minimum capacity of 1 000 t/year for an investment of about US \$2.18 million

The investment figures refer only to machinery costs.

The company is open to joint venture agreements.

A compact unit to purify water

German offer — Ref. 83/78a

A large German group engaged, worldwide, in activities such as mining, construction and chemicals, has developed a compact new water purification unit which comes installed in a convenient transportable container. This unit produces drinking water either from sea water or brackish/ground water.

The nominal capacity of the basic unit is 50 m³/hour.

The German group offers to set up joint venture arrangements for the partial manufacture and maintenance of its water purification units. It also offers financial and technical assistance.

The minimum economically viable production level is nine units per month. Estimated minimum investment is US \$800,000.

Solar panels for water heating

Greek offer — Ref. 83/79a

A Greek company, a leading manufacturer of air conditioners, is interested in making contact with ACP distributors of solar water heaters, with a view to manufacturing flat solar heating panels and the accompanying solar water tanks.

The Greek company is open to various joint venture possibilities. In replying, ACP firms should indicate the total surface area (m²) of the panels and the quantity of tanks which they could market locally, for both residential and commercial applications.

The minimum economically viable production level is 2000 square meters of surface area a year for an estimated investment of US \$600,000, but this investment is in fact sufficient for 6 000 square meters a year.

ADAPTED TECHNOLOGY

MAKING PASTA ON A SMALL SCALE

Pasta is in demand everywhere and an existing technology allows this product to be made on a small scale.

Pasta is commonly made by kneading semolina or wheat flour and water. Other substances can be added to modify the composition and taste of

the pasta: eggs, gluten, casein, spinach, tomatoes, carrots...

It is also possible to use raw materials, such as cassava or maize, which would reduce imports of semolina or wheat flour, and would produce a pasta more adapted to the taste of local people.

The manufacturing of pasta is basically quite simple, but requires a high degree of cleanliness and perfectly adjusted machines. The main phases of the manufacturing process are: purification of raw materials, kneading and homogenization, pressing and drawing,

drying and packaging.

Pasta can be manufactured by small units with capacities varying from a few kilos to 2 tonnes/hour.

A factory capable of producing 75 kg/hour of long pasta obtained from a laminated pasta cut lengthwise (i.e. about 150 tonnes/year) would cost about US \$85 000 in terms of fixed investment. It would employ 10 people.

ACP sponsors are invited to contact CID for further details of this technology. CID can also help with implementation.

OPERATIONAL SUMMARY

No. 18 — September 1983

(position as at 18 August 1983)



EEC-financed development schemes

The following information is aimed at showing the state of progress of EEC development schemes prior to their implementation. It is set out as follows:

Geographical breakdown

The summary is divided into three groups of countries, corresponding to the main aspects of Community development policy:

- the ACP countries (Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific), which signed the multilateral conventions of Lomé I (28 February 1975) and Lomé II (31 October 1979), plus the OCT (overseas countries and territories) of certain member states of the EEC, which get the same type of aid as the ACP countries;
- the Mediterranean countries (Maghreb and Mashraq), which signed cooperation agreements with the EEC in 1976 and 1977;
- the non-associated developing countries of Asia and Latin America, beneficiaries since 1976 of annual aid programmes.

The information within each of these groups is given by recipient country (in alphabetical order).

Note

As the information provided is subject to modification in line with the development aims and priorities of the recipient country, or with the conditions laid down by the authorities empowered to take financial decisions, the EEC is in no way bound by this summary, which is for information only.

Information given

The following details will usually be given for each development scheme:

- the title of the project;
- the administrative body responsible for it;
- the estimated sum involved (prior to financing decision) or the amount actually provided (post financing decision);
- a brief description of projects envisaged (construction work, supplies of equipment, technical assistance, etc.);
- any methods of implementation (international invitations to tender, for example);
- the stage the project has reached (identification, appraisal, submission for financing, financing decision, ready for implementation).

Main abbreviations

Resp. Auth.: Responsible Authority
Int. tender: International invitation to tender
Acc. tender: Invitation to tender (accelerated procedure)
Restr. tender: Restricted invitation to tender
TA: Technical assistance
EDF: European Development Fund
mECU: Million European currency units

Correspondance about this operational summary can be sent directly to:

Mr. Franco Cupini
Directorate General for Development
Commission of the European Communities
(ARCH.25/1-1)
200, Rue de la Loi
B-1049 Brussels

who will pass on requests for information to the services in charge of projects.

Sectoral Index

<p style="text-align: center;">AGRICULTURE</p> <p>Irrigation and soil development, infrastructures, improvement</p> <p>Coffee, tea, tobacco, cereals, earth-nut, ground-nut, maize, sugar, cotton, palm-tree, coco-tree, rice, gum-tree, potatoes, citrus fruit, hevea</p> <p>Seed and crop protection, environment</p> <p>Agro-industry</p> <p>Forestry</p>	<p>Burundi, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Dominica, Ethiopia, Ghana, Equatorial Guinea, Guyana, Kenya, Malawi, Mauritius, Mauritania, Niger, Rwanda, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Solomon Islands, Somalia, Sudan, Suriname, Chad, Upper Volta, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Egypt, Bangladesh, Burma, Indonesia, Sri Lanka, Thailand, The Philippines, Dominican Republic, Haiti, Nicaragua, Honduras, Bolivia, Costa Rica, India, Interim Mekong Committee, Peru</p> <p>Burundi, Centralafrican rep., Comoros, Chad, Ethiopia, Ghana, Guinea, Ivory Coast, Jamaica, Liberia, Madagascar, Mauritania, P.N.G., Solomon Islands, Senegal, Somalia, Surinam, Zaire, CILSS, Bangladesh, Burma, Thailand</p> <p>Bahamas, Benin, Kenya, Mali, Mauritius, Uganda, Niger Basin Authority, CILSS, Egypt, Mozambique, Bangladesh, Bhutan</p> <p>Burundi, Solomon Islands, Sao Tome, Togo, Morocco, Thailand, Yemen (Arab Rep.)</p> <p>Gabon, Guinea Bissau, Nigeria, New Caledonia, Niger Basin Authority</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">STOCK FARMING-FISHING-PISCICULTURE</p> <p>Improvement</p> <p>Veterinary actions</p> <p>Processing industry</p>	<p>Benin, Botswana, Burundi, Ethiopia, Gabon, Ghana, Malawi, P.N.G., St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Sierra Leone, Upper Volta, Vanuatu, CARICOM, Tunisia, Angola, Mozambique</p> <p>Jamaica, Kenya, Niger, Zambia, New Caledonia, Southern Africa, Kenya-Gambia-Senegal, Eastern Africa, ICiPE</p> <p>Bahamas, French Polynesia, Angola, Indonesia, India</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">RURAL HYDRAULICS</p> <p>Wells, bores, pumps, pipes, small dams</p>	<p>Botswana, Cape Verde, Guinea, Guinea Bissau, Guyana, Mali, Niger, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Swaziland, Togo, Nepal, Zimbabwe</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">TOWN WATER SUPPLY AND SEWERAGE</p> <p>Water supply, pipes, drinking water</p> <p>Sewerage, waste water, collectors, pumping stations, treatment</p>	<p>Cape Verde, Comoros, Djibouti, Guyana, Mauritania, Niger, Rwanda, Tanzania, Uganda, Zaire, Zambia, Zimbabwe, New Caledonia</p> <p>Cape Verde, Guyana, Senegal</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIONS</p> <p>Houses, schools, hospitals, buildings, laboratories</p>	<p>Benin, Burundi, Cape Verde, Centralafrican rep., Chad, Congo, Ethiopia, Gambia, Guinea, Guinea Bissau, Guyana, Grenada, Kenya, Malawi, Mali, Mauritius, Mauritania, Rwanda, Senegal, Seychelles, Somalia, Sudan, Suriname, Swaziland, Tanzania, Uganda, Zimbabwe, CEAO, CERFER, OCAM, OAPI, Forum Fisheries Agency, Eastern Africa, SADCC, CARICOM, Egypt, Jordan, Malta, Yemen</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">TRANSPORTS AND COMMUNICATIONS</p> <p>Roads, bridges, airports, railways, ports</p>	<p>Benin, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Comoros, Congo, Dominique, Gambia, Grenada, Guinea, Guyana, Lesotho, Liberia, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, P.N.G., Senegal, Sierra Leone, Solomon Islands, Somalia, Sudan, Tanzania, Tonga, Zaire, Anguilla, Neth. Antilles, Cayman Isl., Turks & Caicos, Gabon-Sao Tome, Guyana-Surinam, Senegal-Guinea, Swaziland-Lesotho, CARICOM, Tanzania-Uganda, Pakistan, Nicaragua-Honduras</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">TELECOMMUNICATIONS</p> <p>Radio, telephone, satellites, hertzian</p>	<p>Ethiopia-Sudan, UAPT</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">ENERGY</p> <p>Power stations, dams, electrification</p>	<p>Burundi, Cape Verde, Ethiopia, Jamaica, Kenya, Niger, Rwanda, Somalia, Surinam, Uganda, Upper Volta, Zaire, Zambia, O.M.V.G., Turkey</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">NEW AND RENEWABLE ENERGY</p> <p>Solar, wind-wills, biomass, gas, geothermics</p>	<p>Guinea, Senegal, French Polynesia, Rwanda-Zaire, South-Pacific (SPEC), Pakistan</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">MINING</p> <p>Soil survey, research, geophysical survey, Infrastructure, production, processing plants</p>	<p>Mauritania, Senegal, Zimbabwe, Congo-Gabon-OLADE</p> <p>Upper Volta</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">MAPPING</p> <p>Soil-Air</p>	<p>Benin, Congo-Gabon</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">INDUSTRY</p> <p>Plants, productions</p>	<p>Burundi, Malawi</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">TRADE, INDUSTRY, TOURISM, INVESTMENTS PROMOTION - MANAGEMENT - MARKETING - S.M.E. TRAINING</p>	<p>Barbados, Benin, Botswana, Cameroon, Guinea, Jamaica, Kenya, Lesotho, Madagascar, Mauritius, P.N.G., Rwanda, Senegal, Solomon, Somalia, Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda, Zimbabwe, Neth. Antilles, S.A.D.C.C., CARICOM, Algeria, Lebanon, Indonesia, Thailand, ADB, ASEAN, Andean Pact, Central American Isthmus, Non associated developing countries.</p>

ACP STATES

★ Denotes new projects

BAHAMAS

Animal feeds pilot project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Estimated cost 0.412 mECU. Works, supplies and T.A. Date financial decision July 83. 5th EDF.

★ **Fruit crop nursery.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Estimated total cost 1.016 mECU. EDF 0.510 mECU local 0.506 mECU. Works, supplies and T.A. Date foreseen for financial decision September '83. 5th EDF.

BARBADOS

Trade promotion programme. Resp. Auth.: Barbados Export Promotion Corporation. 0.175 mECU. T.A., Trade promotion, Training, Research. 5th EDF.

Tourism development. Resp. Auth.: Barbados Board of Tourism — Barbados Hotel Association. 0.192 mECU. Production of a multilingual Travel Trade Manual and supply of equipment. Supplies: int. tender in 83. Date financial decision July 83. 5th EDF.

BENIN

Djougou-Porga road. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Travaux Publics. Intermittent road improvements over 180 km. Economic study: SEDES Consultant (F). Technical study: BELLER Consultant (D). 4th EDF.

Dassa-Parakou road. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Travaux Publics. 0.7 mECU. Reinstatement and asphaltting of the road (210 km). Economic study: Technosynthesis (I) and Carrara (ACP). 4th EDF. Works 5th EDF.

Upgrading of health service infrastructure in Porto Novo Hospital. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Santé Publique. Porto Novo: renovation and construction of the hospital building and equipment. New technical and architectural studies to be prepared. Short list done. 4th EDF.

Parakou polytechnical complex. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Enseignement Moyen, Général, Technique et Professionnel. Total estimated cost 6.9 mECU. Construction of 8 000 m² of pedagogical and administrative buildings and hostels. Supplies and equipment. Technical and architectural study: Arch. VINOU (Local). Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financial decision 1st half 84. 4th EDF.

Cotonou maternity hospital. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Santé Publique. ±1 mECU. Works: Acc. tender. Equipments: int. tender in '83. Date foreseen for financial decision: 2nd half '83. 4th EDF.

Continuation and extension of fishery development project. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Fermes d'Etat, de l'Elevage et de la Pêche. 1.7 mECU. T.A.: C.T.F.T. (F). Project in execution. 5th EDF.

Livestock development in the Borgou region. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Fermes d'Etat, de l'Elevage et de la Pêche. 3.5 ECU. Numerical and stabilizing cattle improvement for meat production increase. Date foreseen for financial decision September 83. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Geological mapping and mining research between 9th parallel and Ocean. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Industrie et de

l'Artisanat. 3.640 mECU. National mineral resources development. Drawing up a geological chart, surveys, supplies. Date financial decision May 83. 5th EDF.

National Parks development and environment protection. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Développement Rural. Estimated cost 4 mECU. T.A. and equipment for roads and T.A. for scientific actions and Fauna and Flora protection. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

★ **Survey on domestic and national expenditure.** Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Plan, de la statistique et de l'Analyse Economique. Estimated total cost 1.220 mECU. EDF 0.750 mECU, FAC 0.285 mECU, Local 0.185 mECU. T.A. to collect, treat and to use statistical data. Training and supply of equipment. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

BOTSWANA

Trade promotion. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Commerce and Industry — Trade Promotion Unit (TPU). 1.1 mECU. TA, marketing studies, training. 5th EDF.

Village water supplies. Resp. Auth.: Ministry for Mineral Resources and Water Affairs. Planning Study: short-list already drawn up. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

★ **Sheep and Goat development. Phase II.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Animal Production Division and Animal Production Research Unit (APRU). Estimated total cost 2 mECU. EDF 1.6 mECU, Local 0.400 mECU. Works, supply of materials and equipment and T.A. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financial decision October '83. 5th EDF.

BURUNDI

Consolidation of tea production. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Plan. 8.9 mECU. To increase productivity and to improve quality production of tea projects previously financed. TA: A.H.T. (D). Crop inputs: int. tender '83 to '84. Project in execution. 4th EDF.

Institut Universitaire de Sciences de l'Education (IUSE). Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Education Nationale — 0.7 mECU. Construction and equipment of educational buildings (general teaching classes, laboratories, workshops). Architectural and technical studies: TETRA Consultants (Lux). Evaluation study: DURIAU (B). Project on appraisal. 4th EDF.

Rural development of East Mpanda. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. Development of 5 950 ha of land — irrigation, construction of a road network, socio-economic infrastructure, for a population of 5 320 families (of which 3 835 are to be installed). Duration 7 years. Estimate 50 mECU. Cofinanced project. Foreseen funding: IFAD — Local — AFDF — OPEC — PAM. Project in execution. Discussion on EDF participation. 5th EDF.

High altitude foodcrop production. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. First phase (4 years), estimate 8.3 mECU. Cofinanced project. Production of selected seeds, their distribution and commercializa-

tion of surplus products, fertilizer and plant-health products, training. Foreseen funding: Local 0.4 mECU — USAID 4.1 mECU — EDF 3.8 mECU. Int. tender 2nd half '83. T.A.: SOMEBU-AGRER (ACP-B). Project in execution. 5th EDF.

Livestock development project. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. Estimated Cost: ±1 mECU. Supply of equipment and T.A. Study: SEDES Consultant (F). Project on appraisal. 4th EDF.

Remera tea factory. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Plan. Tea factory building for 600-700 tons/year. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

Rwegura-Kayanza-Ngozi region electricity supply. Resp. Auth.: REGIDESO. 2.150 mECU. Construction of medium voltage electric lines. Int. tender launched June 83 conditional upon provisional finance. Supervision of works: short-list already drawn up. Date foreseen for financial decision september 83. 4th EDF.

Bujumbura naval ship yard. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Transports. Study on hand by I.P.G. (D). 4th EDF.

Rwegura hydro-electric power station. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Energie des Mines et des T.P. Estimated total cost 71 mECU. EDF part estimated at ±8 mECU. Foreseen cofundings with KFW (D), CCCE (F), BAD, Kuwait Funds. EDF part for electromechanical equipment. Prequalification launched November 82. Int. tender in 2nd half '83. Date financial decision June 83. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

Faculty of agronomy. Technical and architectural study. BRUSA-PASQUE (I). Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

CAMEROON

Rural development in Logone and Chari departments. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. (SEMRY). Continuation and extension current operation, study on hand: Hydroplan (D) - 5th EDF.

Trade promotion programme. Resp. Auth.: C.N.C.E. 0.650 mECU. Organisation and improvement of the production. T.A. to the C.N.C.E., short list already drawn up. 5th EDF.

Irrigated rice-growing in the Logone and Chari region. (Provisional programme 82/83). Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture (SEMRV). T.A. and studies. EDF part 1.080 mECU, Stabex allotment. Local 1.285 mECU. Date financial decision May 83. 5th EDF.

★ **Eseka-Maloumé-Railway.** Resp. Auth.: Office du chemin de Fer Transcamerounais (OCFT). EDF part 12.2 mECU for earth works. Int. render after prequalification already launched and closed in September, conditional upon provisional finance. Date foreseen for financial decision October '83. 5th EDF.

CAPE VERDE

Sal international airport improvement. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Transports et Communications. Technical study financed

by Italy. Partial financing envisaged. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

Underground water research in the Praia region. Resp. Auth.: Secretariat du Plan. Estimated cost ± 1 mECU. Study: Administration. Date foreseen for financial decision, 4th quarter '83. 5th EDF.

Praia water supply and sewerage. Resp. Auth.: Secretariat au Plan. Estimated cost ± 7.5 mECU. Study on hand: Bureau W.P.W. (D). Date foreseen for financial decision, 4th quarter '83, cofinanced with Kuwait Fund. 5th EDF.

Civil works for laboratory construction. Resp. Auth.: Secretariat au Plan. Estimated cost 0.066 mECU. Construction of a laboratory for soil and rock mechanics in St. Jorge. Date foreseen for financial decision 4th quarter '83. 4th EDF.

Soil protection and conservation. Estimated cost 1.018 mECU. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financial decision 4th quarter 83. 5th EDF.

Praia electrification. Resp. Auth.: Secretariat au Plan. Estimated cost 0.900 mECU. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financial decision, 4th quarter 83. 5th EDF.

CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC

Renovation and equipment of Lycée Technique de Bangui. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Education. 0.800 mECU. Supply of equipment and renovation works. Studies: O.R.T. (UK). Date foreseen for financial decision: 2nd half '83. 5th EDF.

College of Education in Bangui (Lycée d'application de l'E.N.S.) Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Education. Estimated total cost 1.2 mECU. Building and equipment of the school. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

Rural development in the cotton area. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture (SO-CADA). Cofinanced project with I.D.A. and France. EDF 7 mECU. T.A.: shortlist not yet drawn up. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financial decision: September '83. 5th EDF.

Bossongo palm-tree plantation. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. Total estimated cost ± 23 mECU. Cofinancing with CCCE(F), Af.D.B., A.D.F., B.D.E.A.C., Local (with Stabex allotment). 2,500 ha industrial plantation. Works, supplies, equipments, T.A. and oil-plant. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

CHAD

Rural interventions in the Sudan area. Study on the way by A.D.C. (UK). Project on appraisal. Int. tender for agricultural inputs, conditional upon provisional finance, launched in July '83. 5th EDF.

Health programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Santé. Estimated total cost 6.561 mECU. EDF 5.515 mECU — Médecins sans Frontières 0.557 mECU — Avions sans Frontières 0.180 mECU — Local 0.309 mECU. Works, supply of medicinals and medical equipment and T.A. Supplies: int. tender launched May 83. Projet in execution. 5th EDF.

★ **Cotton productivity (84-85 Campaign).** Resp. Auth.: Office National de Développement Rural (ONDR). 4.4 mECU. Purchase of fertilizers insecticides, and equipment. Int. tender conditional upon provisional finance

launched in July '83. Date foreseen for financial decision October '83. 5th EDF.

COMOROS

Economical and technical study to assess harbour infrastructure in Grande Comore and in Mohéli. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Travaux Publics. NEI-D.H.V. (NL). Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Maize development project. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. Estimated Cost 1.9 mECU. Works, supplies and T.A. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Mutsamudu water supply. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Plan. 2.3 ECU. Works and supplies for drinking water supply to the town. Works and supplies: Int. tender conditional upon provisional finance foreseen in 2nd half 83. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

CONGO

Indo-Bihoua-Loudima Road. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Travaux Publics. 28.5 mECU. Reconstruction of the section Indo-Bihoua (20 km) and construction of a new road Bihoua-Loudima (57 km). Works: contract on awarding. Supervision of works: short-list already drawn up. Projet in execution. 4th and 5th EDF.

Sanitary and social actions. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Santé Publique. Study and construction of the Ouesso hospital and construction of the Ecole de formation paramédicale et médico-sociale J.J. Loukabou (Brazzaville). Appraisal of the project after sanitary programming and technical studies. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

DJIBOUTI

Djibouti water supply. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Plan. 0.918 mECU. Improvement of production (EDF part). Pump station rehabilitation and reinstatement of the installations' management. (CCCE part). Works and supplies. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

DOMINICA

Reinstatement of Pont Casse-Castle Bruce Road — Surfacing of 2 coastal roads East and West. Resp. Auth.: Public Works Department. Estimated cost 2.5 mECU. Study on the way: Nicolas O'Dwyer (Irl.) Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

Crop diversification project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Estimated cost 0.547 m ECU. Continuation of essential oils programme. Initiating floriculture programme. Works, supplies and T.A. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financial decision 2nd half 83. 5th EDF.

Floriculture development. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Stabex allotment 0.049 mECU. Establishment of a small nursery. All by direct labour. Date financial decision, July 83. 5th EDF.

Colihaut-Arose feeder road. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Communications and Works. Stabex allotment 0.060 mECU. Upgrading of the existing road. All by direct labour. Date financial decision, July 83. 5th EDF.

EQUATORIAL GUINEA

Rural interventions. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

ETHIOPIA

Health project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Health. 15.400 mECU. Construction and equipping of two rural hospitals and a school for laboratory technicians in Addis Ababa. Works: on the way. Equipment: int. tender in 83-84. Projet in execution. 4th EDF.

Fishery Development. Resp. Auth.: Fisheries Development and Marketing Corporation. 2.078 mECU. EDF 1.513 mECU, Local 0.565 mECU. Supply of equipments, facilities and T.A. Supplies: int. tender in '83. T.A.: GOPA (D). Project in execution. 4th EDF.

Electrical tariffication study. Resp. Auth.: E.E.L.P.A. Short-list already drawn up. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Coffee improvement (phase 2). Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Coffee and Tea Development. 27.2 mECU. Works, supplies. T.A.: Short-list already drawn-up. Int. tender for fertilizer, insecticides in '83. Int. tender for equipment launched in February 83. 5th EDF.

★ **Strengthening the rural engineering department of the Allemaya Agricultural College.** Resp. Auth.: University of Addis Abbaba. 0.212 mECU. Stabex '81. Supply of laboratory equipment by int. tender. Date foreseen for financial decision September 83. 5th EDF.

★ **Amibara Irrigation Project.** Supplementary financing. 2.9 mECU. Purchase of materials, rural equipment, tractors, vehicles by int. tender end '83. Date foreseen for financial decision October 83. 5th EDF.

GABON

Reafforestation (improvement of the reafforestation brigade's activity). Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. EDF part for renewing and completing equipment. Project stage: identification. Study: C.T.F.T. (F). 5th EDF.

Small-fishery centre in Owendo. Resp. Auth.: Ministère, des Eaux et Forêts. Total cost 2.450 mECU EDF 1.900 mECU. Italy 0.425 mECU, local 0.125 mECU. Infrastructure for handling facilities for boats and fish products, marketing and management. T.A. and supervision of works: short list already drawn up. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

GAMBIA

Brikama College, phase II. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Works and Communications. 1.925 mECU. Construction and equipment of academic and residential buildings. Works by mutual agreement. Equipment for phase II: int. tender, 2nd half 1983. 4th EDF.

Rural vocational training, phase 2. Resp. Auth.: Rural Vocational Training Board and Directorate of Vocational Training in the President's Office. 0.500 mECU. Supply of pedagogical equipment, by Acc. tender. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

★ **Feeder road construction.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of works and communications. 0.681 mECU. Stabex '81. Construction of 31 km of roads by direct labour. Date foreseen for financial decision October '83. 5th EDF.

GHANA

Central and Accra Regions Rural Integrated Programme (CARRIP). Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning. Prefeasibility study for potential projects within the two regions, with the aim of improving the food situation in Accra and other coastal towns. Halcrow-U.L.G. (UK). Study: rehabilitation irrigation project: HED-ESELSKABET (DK). 5th EDF.

Aveyme livestock development. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 3.2 mECU. Works, supply of vehicles and equipment, T.A.: short-list already drawn up. 5th EDF.

★ **Pretsea Oil Palm Plantation.** Resp. Auth.: National Oil Palm Ltd. Supplementary financing. 0.915 mECU. Supplies, works and T.A. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financial decision October '83. 5th EDF.

GRENADA

Eastern main road rehabilitation. Phase 2. Repairing and strengthening of a section of the circular road. Estimated cost 1.350 mECU. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Hillsborough jetty. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Public Works. 0.357 mECU. Construction of a jetty for goods and passenger handling. 5th EDF.

National library. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Education. 0.290 mECU. Repairing and extension. Date foreseen for financial decision: September '83. 5th EDF.

★ **Mirabeau Agricultural Training School.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Construction and Public Utilities. 0.230 mECU. Works by direct labour. Date foreseen for financial decision October '83. 5th EDF.

GUINEA

Land development in Kankan and Labé regions. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture et des F.A.P.A. Valuation: Mac Donald and Partners (UK). Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

New energy research and test. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Energie et du Konkourè. Study on hand. 5th EDF.

Cotton development. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture, des Eaux, Forêts et FAPA. Rural infrastructure, supply of rural inputs, equipment, vehicles and T.A. Project on appraisal, 5th EDF.

Town planning and construction of council houses. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Urbanisme et de l'Habitat. Estimated cost 9 mECU. Buildings, supply of equipment and T.A. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

T.A. to P.M.E. (S.M.E.). Resp. Auth.: Ministère de P.M.E. et de l'Artisanat. 5 mECU (EDF part). One expert specialised in industrial work during 36 months and one expert for bank management. Line of credit. Project in execution. Cofinanced with IBRD and ACDI for T.A. and line of credit. 5th EDF.

GUINEA BISSAU

Rio Campossa Bridge. Resp. Auth.: Commissariat d'Etat aux Travaux Publics. Estimated cost 2 mECU. Bafata-Bambadinca Road. Works, supply may be, T.A. Study STINCEN (I). Project on appraisal. Int. tender (conditional) launched in June '83. 5th EDF.

Health infrastructures. Resp. Auth.: Commissariat d'Etat au Travaux Publics. Estimated cost 1.9 mECU. Construction and equipment of 2 district hospitals, 4 health centres and staff-housing. Supply of equipment: int. tender on 2nd half '83. T.A.: Ass. Engineers (I). 5th EDF.

North-East forestry development. Resp. Auth.: Commissariat général au développement rural. Study on the way by Atlanta (D). 5th EDF.

Rural hydraulics. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des ressources naturelles. Estimated cost 1.4 mECU. Construction of big diameter wells (1.5 m) about 120 wells in the GABU region. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financial decision 4th quarter '83. 5th EDF.

GUYANA

East Bank Berbice rural development programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Works: feeder roads, infrastructure. Supply of fertilizers and equipments. T.A. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

★ **East Bank Berbice — Culverts for Secondary drains.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Works. 0.900 mECU. Construction of culverts, by int. tender. Date foreseen for financial decision October '83. 5th EDF.

Faculty of agriculture. Estimated cost 1.100 mECU. Construction, supply of equipment and supervision of works. Technical study and tender dossier: Rodriguez (ACP). Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Rehabilitation of sewerage and water supply systems of Georgetown. 1.6 mECU. Laying sanitation pipes, construction of water supply wells. Supplies and T.A. Supply: int. tender launched May '83. 5th EDF.

Georgetown water supply improvement. Drinking water production. Works and equipment. 0.400 mECU. Date financial decision July '83. 5th EDF.

Fishing port and fish-market in Georgetown. Building of a new port and fish market in Georgetown. 2.700 mECU. Date foreseen for financial decision 4th quarter '83. 5th EDF.

IVORY COAST

★ **Oil-palm tree plantation extension programme.** Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture and "Palminindustrie". Estimated total cost 18.2 mECU. EDF 10.35 mECU. Local 7.85 mECU: 12,517 h of palm tree plantations. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financial decision end '83. 5th EDF.

JAMAICA

Assistance to veterinary services. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 1.1 mECU. Works: construction of office by direct labour, supply of equipments, vehicles, medical products, int. tender or direct agreement. T.A.: training by direct agreement. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

Board of Revenue — revenue information system. Resp. Auth.: Govt of Jamaica. 3.26 mECU. Reorganisation of the administration and preparation of the Revenue Information System. Supplies and T.A. Int. tender for supplies foreseen in 4th quarter '83.

Supervision of project: X-TRA Consult. (B). Project in execution. 5th EDF.

Rural electrification programme. Erection of 160 miles electric lines. Estimated cost 4.596 mECU. EDF part 2 mECU. Project on appraisal. Int. tender (conditional) launched in July '83. 5th EDF.

Citrus fruit production improvement. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. Estimated cost 3.5 mECU. Equipment, training and T.A. Credit line. Feasibility study by T.P.I. (UK). Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financial decision October-November '83. 5th EDF.

KENYA

Machakos integrated development programme. Provisional Phase. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Economic Planning and Development. Valuation study. Overseas Dev. Int. (UK). Supplies: int. tender launched in August '83 for insecticides. 5th EDF.

Kenya trade promotion. Resp. Auth.: Kenya External Trade Authority. 1 mECU. T.A. for sales and marketing missions, provision of equipment and materials for the Training Division. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

Eldoret Polytechnic. Estimated cost. 6 mECU. Construction, supply of equipment (pedagogical) and T.A. Preliminary Plan Study: Hughes & Polkinghorne (ACP). Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

Veterinary investigation laboratory Mariakani. Adm. Resp.: Ministry of Livestock Department. Veterinary Department. 3.4 mECU. Construction of a veterinary investigation laboratory. Supply of materials and equipments. T.A. Materials and equipment: int. tender 2nd half '83. T.A.: direct agreement. 5th FED.

Turkwell hydro-electric project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Energy. Feasibility study and final study design tendering to be done. Short-list not yet drawn up. 5th EDF.

Assistance to the National Cereals and Produce Board for crop procurement. Resp. Auth.: Gov. of Kenya and NCPB. 4.6 mECU. Stabex allotment. Starting capital for the establishment of a crop procurement fund as an independent source of finance. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

LESOTHO

Maseru airport. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Transport and Communication. Estimation 50 mECU. Provision of a modern international airport 15 km south of Maseru. Foreseen funding: Lesotho - Saudi Fund - Kuwait Fund - ABEDA 4.4 mECU - OPEC - Abu Dhabi - ADB. EDF and Finland. - Project on appraisal. 4th and 5th EDF.

Mohale's Hoek - Outhing road. Mohale's Hoek-Mekaling part. Resp. Auth.: Central Planning and Dev. Office. Reinstatement of a road. 25 km. Estimated cost ± 14 mECU. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Trade and tourism promotion programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Trade, Tourism and Industry — Trade Promotion Unit (TPU) and LNTD (Lesotho National Tourism Office). 0.714 mECU. Studies, T.A. missions, marketing. T.A. for S.M.E.: short-list already drawn up. T.A. for trade tour.: short-list already drawn up. 5th EDF.

LIBERIA

Coffee and cocoa development project at Zwedru and Plahn. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 5.7 mECU, EDF 2.9 mECU, Local 2.8 mECU. To develop 980 hectares of robusta coffee and 1 320 hectares of cocoa in Grand Gedeh and Sinoe countries. Works by acc. tender. — Supplies by int. tender in '83. Project in execution. 4th EDF.

Buto oil palm. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Study on the way by I.R.H.O. (F) for phase 2. 4th and 5th EDF.

Port Development Study South East — Phase II and III. Resp. Auth.: National Port Authority. Continuation of feasibility study. Project on appraisal. 4th EDF.

MADAGASCAR

Supply of pharmaceutical and medical products and analysis of the industrial sector rehabilitation. Resp. Auth.: Gouvernement de Madagascar. 2.165 mECU. Date foreseen for financial decision 2nd half '83. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Urgent programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la production agricole et de la réforme agraire. Damage from cyclonic depressions. Rice-growing areas 3 mECU. Works by direct agreement or direct labour. Supervision of works: Hydroplan (D). Rehabilitation study: HUNTINGS (UK) Sambava coconut palm plantations: works by direct labour. 1.2 mECU. 5th EDF.

★ **Rehabilitation of the société-Malgache du palmier à huile (SOMAPALM).** Resp. Auth.: Ministère pour la production agricole et la réforme agraire and Somapalm. 0.753 mECU. Stabex '81. Works supplies and T.A. Works by direct labour. Supplies by direct agreement. T.A.: I.R.H.O. (F). Date foreseen for financial decision September '83. 5th EDF.

MALAWI

Blantyre-Mwanza road. (Lirangwe-Mwanza-Mozambique Border Road.) Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Works. Reinstatement and asphaltting of the road (±95 km). Estimated cost 33 mECU. Int. tender launched in July '83. Date financial decision July '83. 4th and 5th EDF.

Dairy cattle development. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Cross local bovine breed with european dairy breeds. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Improvement of district hospitals and health centres. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Works. 3.8 mECU. Building of small district hospitals and health centres. Works, supplies and T.A. Int. tender for Karonga launched in July '83. 5th EDF.

Salima Lakeshore Agricultural Development Division (SLADD) Phase IV. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Estimated cost: 19.3 mECU. EDF 10.2 mECU. Local 9.1 mECU. Works, Supplies and T.A. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financial decision 2nd half '83. 5th EDF.

Central and northern region fish farming development, training and research. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Estimated cost: 3 mECU. Works, supplies, T.A. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Strategic fuel reserve. Resp. Auth.: Economic Planning Division. OPC.

4.2 mECU. Construction of tanks farm for gasoil, petrol, ethanol. Associated infrastructure and equipment. T.A. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

★ **Construction and rehabilitation of milk collection centres.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture and Malawi Milk Marketing. 0.143 mECU. Stabex '81. Cofinanced project with Canada. Works and equipment by direct labour and direct agreement. Date foreseen for financial decision October '83. 5th EDF.

MALI

Strengthening of sanitary infrastructure in the Niore region. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Santé et des Affaires Sociales et Ministère des Transports et T.P. 2.570 mECU. Buildings, equipments, training. Architecturals and technicals studies: GOUSIER (F). 4th EDF.

Sevare-San road repairing. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Transports et Equipment. Widening and strengthening of 106 km of the road beginning from Sevare. Estimated cost 10.3 mECU. Works by int. tender launched in July '83. Date financial decision July '83. 4th and 5th EDF.

Rural hydraulics. Resp. Auth.: Direction Nationale Opération Puits (DNOP) and Direction de l'Hydraulique, et de l'énergie (DNHE). Estimated cost: 4.3 mECU. Water-points. Study: situation of the hydraulic sector in the project area: UNIGEO (I). Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financial decision September 83. 5th EDF.

Store-sheds construction for cereals. Resp. Auth.: Office des Produits agricoles du Mali (OPAM). 2 sheds 500 T capacity each. Stabex allotment 0.142 mECU. Works: restr. tender. T.A.: by German aid. Date financial decision, June 83. 5th EDF.

MAURITANIA

Extension of Kaédi regional hospital. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Équipement. 1.925 mECU. Construction, equipment and T.A. for Kaédi hospital (100 beds). Works: on the way. Medical-technical equipment int. tender, 2nd half '83. Project in execution. 4th EDF.

Regeneration of gum-tree plantations. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Développement Rural. Estimated Cost: 1.5 mECU. Feasibility study: Bureau COURTOY (B). Works. T.A. and supplies. T.A.: AGRER (B). Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Small dams construction in the Hodhs region. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Développement rural. Estimated cost 3.5 mECU. Study on the way Binnie and Partners (UK). Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Nouakchott - Rosso road. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Travaux Publics. Estimated cost 5 mECU. Repairing and reinstatement. Project on appraisal. Int. tender conditional upon provisional finance launched in May 83. Date financial decision July 83. 5th EDF.

Regional capitals water supply. Resp. Auth.: Direction de l'Hydraulique. Estimated cost 2.5 mECU. Studies: deep water research and towns water supply. Short-list not yet drawn up. 5th EDF.

Nouakchott Wharf. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Équipement et des Transports. Esti-

mated cost 1.5 mECU. Maintaining, equipment and repairing. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Orientated mining research in the Mauritanides. Resp. Auth.: O.M.R.G. (Office Mauritanien de Recherches Géologiques). EDF part 1,5 mECU. Concerning T.A., petrography and analysis. T.A.: restr. tender. Petrography and analysis: direct agreement with a specialized consulting. Date financial decision July 83. 5th EDF.

MAURITIUS

Mauritius housing project. Resp. Auth.: Mauritius Housing Corporation and the Ministry of Housing, Lands and Town and Country Planning. 3.2 mECU. Financing (for low income households) of approximately 1,250 housing units. Infrastructure work for urbanisation and service plots: int. tender, in '83. Consultancy service: — APFEL (D). 4th EDF.

Development of Ile Rodrigues. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 3 mECU. Development centred on agricultural production. Economical and technical study, on the way: VINK (NL). T.A.: short-list already drawn up. 5th EDF.

Investments and trade promotion. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Trade and Industry. (Investment Promotion Unit and Export Promotion Unit). 1.610 mECU. IMES (UK) - SO-PROGI (F) RKW-TTC-Agroprogress (D). 5th EDF.

Strengthening of the sanitary infrastructure. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Health. 3.150 mECU. Reinstatement and extension of 3 hospitals and 2 health centres. Supply of equipment, int. tender launched in July '83. 5th EDF.

2 maize drying units. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of economic planning and development. 0.850 mECU. Construction and equipment of the 2 units for treatment of 1.500 T each of maize grown in alternating rows with sugar-cane. Works and supplies, int. tender launched in July '83. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

Phoenix-La Vigie road. Possible cofinancing with FAC (F) and local gov. EDF part ±5 mECU. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

NIGER

Rural development of Zinder Department. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. Estimated cost 7.6 mECU. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Rural development of Badeguicheri Department. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. Estimated cost 3.4 mECU. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Air Valley development. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. Estimated cost 2.8 mECU. Hydro-agricultural works. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Rural hydraulics. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Hydraulique. Estimated cost 5 mECU. 280 drills in the Zinder region. Int. tender (conditional) launched in August '83. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financial decision September '83. 5th EDF.

Kollo water supply. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Hydraulique. Estimated cost 1.8 mECU. Study on the way: G.K.W. (D). Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financial decision 2nd half 83. 5th EDF.

Animal disease control. 2nd phase. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Développement Rural. 1.840 mECU. Supply of equipment and T.A. Int. tender for supplies launched in May '83. 5th EDF.

Kandadji Dam. Resp. Auth.: Autorité du barrage de Kandadji. (ABK). Study Cofinanced with UNDP, FAC, EDF and Local. First part of the detailed technical studies. EDF and Local part: complementary exploring study: short-list already drawn up. 5th EDF.

NIGERIA

Hydraulic development. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Water Resources. Estimated Cost: 2.350 mECU. Equipment for Technological Institute of Kaduna. T.A.: Bureau M.R.T. (UK and Nigeria). Supply of drilling equipment; int. tender launched in June '83. 4th EDF.

Kaduna afforestation project. Resp. Auth.: Federal Department of Forestry. Estimated Cost 10 mECU. Feasibility study: EUROCONSULT (NL). Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

PAPUA NEW GUINEA

Foodstuffs production on the south coast. Resp. Auth.: Department of Primary Industry. E.D.F. part 3 mECU. Development of seasonal cultivation and marketing. Technical and economic studies. Definition of the project: Produce Studies Ltd. Consultant (UK). Project on appraisal. 4th EDF.

Momote airport. Resp. Auth.: Department of Transport and Civil Aviation. 1.000 mECU. Reconstruction and sealing of runway. Acc. tender for asphaltting foreseen on June '83. 5th EDF.

Magi highway. Resp. Auth.: Department of Transport. 3.5 mECU. Upgrading and sealing of a road section. Works: int. tender foreseen 2nd half '83. 5th EDF.

Huris Grasslands cattle ranch and cocoa Project. Resp. Auth.: Department of Primary Industry. 1.460 mECU. Works, supplies, T.A. and training. Date financial decision July 83. 5th EDF.

RWANDA

Bugesera water supply. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Plan. Construction of a drinking-water network in Bugesera. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Development of Zaire Nil Crest. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture 13.8 mECU. Développement of agricultural production and social-economic infrastructure. T.A.: INSTRUPA (D). Supply: int. tender in '83. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

Transmission-lines study in secondary centres. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Plan. Economical and technical studies to be done. Short-list already drawn up. 5th EDF.

Lines of credit for S.M.E. Resp. Auth.: Banque Rwandaise de Développement. 0.720 mECU. Development of the credit to the S.M.E. rurals with "Banque Populaire". Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Strengthening of the "public enterprises". Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Plan. Estimated cost 2.595 mECU. Creation of a central accountancy agency, training and control data. Supply of equipment for audit-

ing and office and vehicles. T.A.: Short list already drawn up. 5th EDF.

Development of Préfecture de Butare.

Priority actions. Resp. Auth.: Ministères du Plan et de l'Agriculture. Total estimated cost 11.765 mECU. EDF 10.400 mECU. Local 1.365 mECU. Actions to improve rural products, S.M.E., handicrafts and administration. Works by direct labour or direct agreement. Supplies and equipment, int. tender or direct agreement. T.A.: Short-list already drawn up. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

ST LUCIA

Livestock development project. Phase 2. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of rural development. Estimated cost 0.860 mECU. Extension project zone. Works, supplies and T.A. Study: short-list already drawn up. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

ST VINCENT AND GRENADINES

Livestock development project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 0.415 m ECU. Works, equipment and supply of vehicles. T.A.: shortlist not yet drawn up. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

SAO TOME PRINCE

Equipment for cacao-tree plantations. 0.217 mECU. Stabex allotment. Supply of equipment, vehicles and spare parts. Int. tender 2nd half 83. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

SENEGAL

Increase of cereal-growth in S.O. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Développement Rural. 4.68 mECU. Preparatory study: SODEFITEX (Senegal). Hydro-agricultural improvements in small areas. Works by direct labour. Supply of crop inputs and pumping equipment: int. tender launched in July '83. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

New energy research and test in rural region. Resp. Auth.: Secrétariat d'Etat à la Recherche Scientifique. 1.5 mECU. Creation of pilot unit for solar energy, biomass and wind energy. Studies T.A. and equipment. Studies: AGIP-AFOR (I). Equipments: int. tender in 83. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Gum-tree plantation. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Développement Rural. Estimated cost 2.5 mECU. Works, supplies and T.A. T.A.: Deutsche Forstinventur Service (D). Project in execution. 5th EDF.

Sewerage of the "Gueule Tapée" district. Resp. Auth.: Direction Générale des Travaux Publics. Estimated cost 6 mECU. Construction of canalization and pipes for rain waters. Improvement of the sewage network. Definition study and tender dossier: GEO PROGETTI (I). Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financial decision 4th quarter 83. 5th EDF.

Trade Promotion programme. Resp. Auth.: Centre Sénégalais du Commerce Extérieur. 1.083 mECU. Actions for productions, marketing and T.A. Contract: direct agreement or restr. tender. 5th EDF.

Renovation of "St. Louis Hospital" and of the health centre of Tambacounda. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Plan et de la Coopération. Estimated total cost 3.725 mECU. EDF 2.825 mECU. Luxembourg 0.900 mECU. Works: acc. tender launched 2nd

half '82. Supplies: int. tender in '83. Project in execution. Supervision of works: Simon and Christiansen (Lux) and Socotec Senegal (ACP). 5th EDF.

Expenditures previously foreseen as participation of Govt. of Senegal for 3 projects financed on 4th and 5th EDF, charged on 5th EDF. 1.985 mECU. Complementary funding for the project: "Livestock development" 0.700 mECU. Complementary funding for the project "Construction and equipment of ENIE", 0.900 mECU. Complementary funding for the project "Handicraft promotion". 0.385 mECU. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Small villager areas. (Podor). Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Développement Rural. Estimated cost 4.700 mECU. Hydro-agricultural improvement of 1000 ha in 20 small areas. Works: irrigation, tracks. Supply of motor-pumps: int. tender launched in April '83. T.A.: Short-list already drawn up. 4th and 5th EDF.

Noirot Bridge at Kaolack. Resp. Auth.: Direction Générale Travaux Publics. Estimated cost 2.4 mECU. Existing bridge replacement with a new. T.A.: to prepare technical dossier for an int. tender with competition. Int. tender foreseen 2nd half '83. T.A.: Bureau Obermeier (D). 5th EDF.

Experimental turf extraction in the Niayes region. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de Développement Industriel. 0.600 mECU. Works and T.A. Date financial decision April 83. 5th EDF.

Continuation of cereals-growing development in agricultural areas. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Dév. Rural-Société des Terres Neuves. Estimated cost 2.2 mECU. Works (roads, drillings, wells) supply of fertilizers, building materials and T.A. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financial decision October '83. 5th EDF.

SEYCHELLES

Renovation of Victoria Hospital. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Health. Estimated cost 11.5 mECU. EDF 2.4 mECU, ADB (African Dev. Bank) 4 mECU. Renovation and new constructions, supply of medical equipment. Date financial decision July '83. 5th EDF.

SIERRA LEONE

North-western integrated agricultural development project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. Four-year integrated programme to develop mangrove swamps, upland crops, coastal fishing, infrastructure. Estimated Cost: 6.03 mECU. EDF 4.9 mECU. Local 1.13 mECU. Works: acc. tender. Supplies: int. tender. T.A.: direct agreement. Project in execution. 4th and 5th EDF.

Koinadugu — Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. Estimated total cost 8.370 mECU. EDF 7.5 mECU. Local 0.870 mECU. Buildings and housing, transport equipment, farm inputs, operation, maintenance, staff salaries. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

Rural hydraulics. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. Estimated cost 1.55 mECU. Construction of water points for villages with 2000 inhabitants. Study to prepare project and appraisal: IWACO (NL). Date foreseen for financial decision 3rd quarter '83. 5th EDF.

Kambia Fishery Development. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. 0.900 mECU. Construction of 2 buildings and a boatyard, supply of boats, motors, vehicles and T.A. T.A.: Short-list already drawn up. 5th EDF.

Economical study of the Sambamba-Kabala Road. Short-list already drawn up. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

★ **Feeder roads construction Unit — Kambia District.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Works. 0.248 mECU. Stabex '81. Purchase of road equipment (loader, tractor, trailer, pick-up) by int. tender. Date foreseen for financial decision September '83. 5th EDF.

SOLOMON ISLANDS

Small rural infrastructure. Rural feeder roads, small wharves, storage sheds and rural water supplies. Works by direct labour or direct agreement. Estimated cost 0.500 mECU. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financial decision: September '83. 5th EDF.

Credit line to Development Bank of Solomon Islands. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Finance. Total estimated cost 7 mECU. Local 2 mECU, EDF 2 mECU, A.D.B. 3 mECU. Small loans for rural development projects. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Coconut industry development project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Land and Natural Resources. Estimated cost 2 mECU. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

★ **Navigational aids for provincial airfields.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Transport and Communications. 0.470 mECU. Construction of buildings by direct labour. Supply and installation of navigational aid-systems by int. tender at the end of '83. Date foreseen for financial decision September '83. 5th EDF.

SOMALIA

Saakow rural experimental centre. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Creation of an irrigated area (60 ha) with all facilities and equipment. Aim: agronomical experiments. Estimated total cost: 5.026 mECU. EDF: 4.950 mECU. Local 0.076 mECU. Works: 4 kms of tracks, pump station (180 l/s) electric power station (120 KVA). Supply of: agricultural equipment, 3 tractors, vehicles, furnitures. T.A.: short list not yet drawn up. Land improvement works and estate infrastructure: contracts awarded. Supplies: int. tender 4th quarter '83. Project in execution. 4th EDF.

Bardheera Dam. Resp. Auth.: Bardheera Dam Authority (BDA). 600 mECU. (Estimated) Dam Project 500 mECU. Powerline to Mogadishu 100 mECU. Funding: EDF, Italy, Germany, France, Saudi Arabia, Abu Dhabi, Kuwait Funds, FADES, Isl. Dev. Bank. Local. Power and river regulation for agricultural development. Construction of a concrete gravity dam with hydro-power station, associated infrastructure and electrical transmission lines. The dam will provide water, flood protection and power for up to 233 000 ha of irrigated agriculture in the Juba Valley, and energy to Mogadishu. Civil works: first int. tender during 1984. Transmission lines int. tender in 1984. Equipment: powerhouse main equipment and

auxiliary equipment, int. tenders in 1985. Gates, valves, intake equipment, int tender in 1986. Study: 4th EDF. Works: 5th EDF.

Mogadishu Institute of Statistics. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Public Works. Estimated cost: 0.800 mECU. Supply: int. tender in '83. Project on appraisal. 4th EDF.

Development of pheniculture (date-palm). Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Estimated cost 2 mECU. 1000 ha plantation in the North region. Supply of equipment, machines, inputs, rural monitoring. T.A. to define, may be French aid. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Somalia Trade Promotion. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of National Planning. 0.670 mECU. Four independent components: development of supportive infrastructure and T.A. for frankincense, myrrh and gums. Identification of obstacles to livestock exports and study of livestock marketing. Participation in Trade Fairs. Training, short term consultancies. 5th EDF.

"Aula Magna" Mogadishu National University. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Public Works. ±2.5 mECU. Project on appraisal. 4th EDF.

Mogadishu Slipway. Rep. Auth.: Ministry of Planning. Estimated cost 3 or 4 mECU. Feasibility study on the way by AVECO (NL). 4th EDF.

SUDAN

Jebel Marra rural development project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Natural Resources. 15.043 mECU. EDF 11 mECU. Local 4.043 mECU. Agricultural extension and improvement or rural infrastructure (road improvement and maintenance, forestry programme, community development programme). Supplies: int. tender for fertilizers in '83. TA: Hunting Technical Services Ltd (UK). Project in execution. 4th EDF.

Agricultural inputs and rehabilitation project. Phase II (AIRPII). Resp. Auth.: Government and Sudan Gezira Board. Estimated cost 19 mECU. Supply of fertilizers (urea) for Gezira Scheme project. Date financial decision July 83. Int. tender for fertilizers launched on May 83 conditional upon provisional finance. 5th EDF.

University of Juba, phase II. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Education. 7 mECU. Additional facilities on the new campus for a capacity of about 400 students: 3 hostels, (1 100 m² each) dining hall and kitchen (360 m²), 3 college buildings (1 850 m²), 21 staff houses (each 170 m²). Works including infrastructure for water, sewerage and electricity: int. tender launched September '82. Equipment: int. tender in 1983. 4th EDF.

Trade promotion Sudan. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Co-operation, Commerce and Supply. 0.34 mECU. Studies, T.A. and participation in trade fairs. Studies and contract: Short-list already drawn up. 4th EDF.

Port Sudan-Hayia railway. Resp. Auth.: Sudan Railway Corporation. Expertise: KAMPSA(DK). 4th EDF.

Magwe — Upper Talanga feeder road. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning. 1.170 mECU. Rehabilitation and regravelling of existing roads and construction of feeder roads. Preparation of the tender dossier: GITEC (D). Project on ap-

praisal. Date foreseen for financial decision September '83. 5th EDF.

SURINAME

Rice project at Coronie. Resp. Auth.: Ministerie van Landbouw, Veeteelt, Visserij en Bosbouw. Rice production developments. Study on the way. EUROCONSULT (NL). Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

Improvement health services in the interior. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Public Works Department. Construction of a health training centre. Works by direct labour. Supplies by direct agreement 0.410 mECU. Date financial decision July '83. 3rd EDF.

LTS — Geyersvljft. Resp. Auth.: Public Works Department. Construction of school building. Lower level technical education. Estimated cost 2.2 mECU. Int tender foreseen 4th quarter '83. Date financial decision July '83. 3rd EDF.

Tapawatra micro-hydropower project. Project stage: identification. 3rd and 4th EDF.

SWAZILAND

Rural hydraulics. Resp. Auth.: Rural Water Supply Board. Estimated cost 2.456 m ECU. Study construction, works supervision. 12 villages. Supply of equipment and material. Study and works supervision: short-list already drawn up. 5th EDF.

Teacher training colleges; Ngwane, Pigg's Peak. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Works. 7.4 mECU. Extension for Ngwane and new construction for Pigg's Peak. Supply of equipment and T.A. to prepare tender dossier and site supervision. For Ngwane acc. tender, for Pigg's Peak int. tender. Supplies: int. tender. Date financial decision July 83. 5th EDF.

TANZANIA

Lusuhunga-Bukombe road. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Works. 20 mECU EDF part. Bitumen road of 127 km. Works: Int. tender foreseen 2nd half '83. Supervision of work: GITEC (D). Seek for cofundings. Regional project. 4th EDF.

Technical teacher training college, Mtwara. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Education. 1.4 mECU. Training facilities for technical teachers. Classrooms, laboratory and workshops, dormitories and sanitary block, administration. Total area 3,765 m². Equipment: int. tender with possibility of restr. tender or direct agreement depending on nature of supply. Supplies: restr. tender, all in '83. 4th EDF.

Mtwara water supply. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Water, Energy and Minerals. 5 mECU. Works: drilling of new wells, and constructions. Supply of equipment and T.A. Drilling activities and power supply connections by direct labour. Other works: int. tender in '83. Supplies: int. tender in '83. Supervision of works: G.W.E. (D). 5th EDF.

Mwanza water supply. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Water, Energy and Minerals. 11 mECU. Construction of a new water intake, installation of a new pumping equipment and treatment plant, laying of a new distribution pipelines. Works and supplies, int. tender foreseen 2nd half '83. Contract

for supervision of works : short-list already drawn up. 5th EDF.

★ **Trade Promotion programme.** Resp. Auth.: Tanzania Board of External Trade (BET). 0.288 mECU. T.A. for B.E.T. Date foreseen for financial decision. October '83. 5th EDF.

★ **Tourism Promotion.** Resp. Auth.: Tanzania Tourist Corporation (TTC). 0.288 mECU. T.A. for T.T.C. Date foreseen for financial decision October '83. 5th EDF.

TOGO

Rural hydraulics. Resp. Auth.: Direction de l'Hydraulique et de l'Energie (D.H.E.). Estimated cost 3 mECU. Construction of ± 240 drills, supply of manual pumps and training. Date foreseen for financial decision, September '83. Int. tender for 240 drills launched on February 83. 3rd, 4th and 5th EDF.

Provisions improvement for Agou oil palm plant. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Développement Rural. EDF 5 mECU. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

TONGA

Supply of a dredger. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Works. Estimated cost 0.500 mECU. Technical study: EUROCONSULT (NL). Int. tender foreseen 2nd half '83. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

UGANDA

Primary health centres rehabilitation. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Health and Ministry of Works. 1.1 mECU. To improve health care in rural areas. Works: acc. tender. Supply: int. tender in '83. Project on appraisal. 4th EDF.

Rehabilitation of the seeds industry. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. 9.5 mECU. To increase production and distribution of improved seeds. Int. tender launched in August 83. T.A.: Short-list already drawn up. 5th EDF.

Rural electrification project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Power and Communications. Supply of 33 KV electrical distribution lines. Erection by direct labour. Int. tender conditional upon provisional finance launched in June '83. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

T.A. to the Uganda Development Bank. Resp. Auth.: Uganda Dev. Bank. 2 experts. 1 year, renewable. Short-list already drawn up. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Kampala city roads. Resp. Auth.: Kampala City Council. Estimated Cost 10 mECU. To rehabilitate selected Kampala roads. Works and supervision. Int. tender conditional upon provisional finance launched on April 83. Date foreseen for financial decision September '83. 5th EDF.

Kampala water supply rehabilitation. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Lands, Minerals and Water Resources. Estimated cost 5.2 mECU. Works, supplies and supervision. T.A. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financial decision September '83. 5th EDF.

UPPER VOLTA

Mine of Poura rehabilitation. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Commerce, du Développement Industriel et des Mines.

4.14 mECU for assessment of the worker's town. Study on hand. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

Kompienga Dam. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Travaux Publics des Transports et de l'Urbanisme. Cofinanced project. Estimated cost ± 102 mECU. Earth-dam construction, access road non asphalted ± 18 kms, two groups of alternators 7800 KVA each, transmission power lines. Works: restr. tender after prequalification. Prequalification done. Int. tender launched December 82. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Development of the Douna plain. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du développement rural. Estimated cost 10 mECU. Irrigation and draining works, supply of equipments, inputs and T.A. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

Young farmers' training. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Développement Rural. 2.880 mECU. T.A., works and equipment. T.A.: C.E.R.E.D. (F). 5th EDF.

Rural credit for harnessing cultivation. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Développement Rural. 1.7 mECU. Line of credit to the "Caisse Nationale de Crédit Agricole". Date financial decision July 83. 5th EDF.

Small ruminants and poultry farming in the Yatenga region. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du développement Rural. 1.150 mECU. Constructions, supply of equipment, training and monitoring. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

VANUATU

Village fisheries, Research and development. Resp. Auth.: National Planning and Statistics Office. Estimated cost ± 0.150 mECU. EDF 0.70 mECU. Promotion and improvement of artisanal fishing. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

ZAIRE

Kinshasa water supply. Resp. Auth.: REGIDESO. Estimated total cost 18 mECU. EDF 7.5 mECU local 10.5 mECU. Study for tender dossier by Bonifica (I). Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financial decision October '83. 5th EDF.

Akula-Gemena road. Resp. Auth.: Commissariat aux Travaux Publics. Upgrading and asphaltting of the road (115 km). Economic study: Bureau SPE (Local). Technical study: LUXCONSULT (Lux). Project on appraisal. Int. tender foreseen 3rd or 4th quarter '83. 5th EDF.

Thé Butuhé. Resp. Auth.: Département de l'Agriculture (Commission Agricole du Kivu). Strengthening and prosecution existing projects. T.A. for management and trading. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financial decision September '83. Fertilizers: int. tender (conditional) launched in August '83. 5th EDF.

Mwebe-Batshamba road. Resp. Auth.: Commissariat aux Travaux Publics. 26 mECU. Part (70 km) of the national road Matadi-Shaba. Prequalification launched in July 81. Int. tender launched in 3rd quarter '82. Date for financial decision July 83. 5th EDF.

Kalemie port rehabilitation. Resp. Auth.: Département des Transports et Communications. Estimated cost not available. Study on the way by CADIC (B). 4th EDF regional. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Banana deep water port. Resp. Auth.: Département des Transports et Communications. Feasibility study: SEMA-TRACTION-NEL-OTUI (F.B.F.). 4th EDF. Complementary technical study: for the port (F+I), electrical (B), water supply (D), water research (EDF). Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

Cocoa plantation at Bulu. Resp. Auth.: CACAOZA-Département de l'Agriculture. Strengthening and continuation existing operations. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financial decision September '83. Fertilizers: int. tender (conditional) launched in August '83. 5th EDF.

Palm trees at Gosuma. Resp. Auth.: PALMEZA-Département de l'Agriculture. Strengthening and continuation existing operations. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financial decision September '83. Fertilizers: int. tender (conditional) launched in August '83. 5th EDF.

Butembo-beni hydro-electrical development. Preliminary study done by Tractionnel (B) on local funds. Detailed economical and technical studies: short-list already drawn up. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Rural roads in Sud-Ubangui. Resp. Auth.: Office des routes. Total cost 5.190 mECU. EDF 4.950 mECU, CDI (Centre de Développement Intégral de Bwamandango) 0.240 mECU. Works by CDI and villages. Supply of graders, trucks by int. tender, 3rd or 4th quarter '83. Date financial decision March 83. 5th EDF.

ZAMBIA

Rural water supply study — 5 Townships. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture and Water Development. Engineering Design. Short-list already drawn up. 5th EDF.

Rural water supply study. 4 Townships. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture and Water Development. Feasibility Study. Short-list not yet drawn up. 5th EDF.

Zambia marketing and trade promotion. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Commerce and Industry. Zambian Export Promotion Council. 0.795 mECU. Product Development and Marketing. Marketing management. Trade Fairs — Tourism planning and promotion. Contracts by direct agreement. 5th EDF.

Animal vaccine unit production. Laboratory construction. Supply of equipment and T.A. Estimated cost 3.79 mECU. EDF 3 mECU, local 0.79 mECU. T.A.: short-list not yet drawn up. 5th EDF.

Mkushi electrification. Estimated cost 6.07 mECU. EDF 3.07 mECU. Cofinancing needed. Study on hand: MERTZ McLENNAN (UK). Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

Mpongwe development project, phase 2. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture and Water Development. (M.A.W.D.) 3.712 mECU. To complete and develop existing project. Works, supplies and T.A. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

ZIMBABWE

Educational Facilities and Equipment. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Manpower Planning and Development. 3 mECU. Building of Technical College and supply of equipment and furniture. Works: on hand. Supplies: int. tender launched in July 83. (Non associated dev. countries budget).

Rural clinics. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Health. 4.5 mECU. Construction and equipment of 64 rural clinics and 128 staff houses. Works: direct labour. Equipments: int. tender. (Non associated dev. countries budget).

Coal study. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Mines. Cofunding EDF-EIB. EDF 0.500 mECU. EIB 0.4 mECU. Study on the way. 5th EDF.

Development of accelerated resettlement schemes. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Lands, resettlement and Rural development. 5.450 mECU. (EDF part). Infrastructures, agricultural activities, equipments and inputs. Date financial decision May '83. 5th EDF.

Rural water supply study. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Water Ressources and Development. Short-list already drawn up. 5th EDF.

Rural water supply — accelerated programme for drought relief in Victoria Province. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Water Ressources and Development. Total cost 3.9 mECU. EDF 2.5 mECU. EDF part: drilling and linings. Works: acc. tender or direct agreement. Date financial decision July 83. 5th EDF.

★ **Veterinary Faculty of the University of Zimbabwe.** Resp. Auth.: University of Zimbabwe. 12.5 mECU National project Zimbabwe plus Regional project with Botswana, Malawi and Swaziland. Construction and supply of equipment for the faculty. All by int. tender. Date foreseen for financial decision October 83. Works: int. tender (conditional) launched in August '83. 5th EDF.

Overseas Countries and Territories (OCT)

ANGUILLA

Road Bay jetty and port facilities. Resp. Auth.: Gov. of Anguilla and British Development Division (Barbados). Estimated cost 0.700 mECU. Expertise for technical and economical appreciation and to prepare designs and tender documents. Short-list already drawn up. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

NETHERLANDS ANTILLES

Port equipment for Saba. Resp. Auth.: Departement voor ontwikkelingssamenwerking. Purchase of a crane. Estimated cost 0.450 mECU. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financial decision September '83. 5th EDF.

Road improvement on Bonaire. Resp. Auth.: Departement voor Ontwikkelingssamenwerking. Estimated cost ± 1 m ECU. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

★ **Meteo-building in St. Marteen.** Resp. Auth.: Central and Island government. 0.550 mECU. Construction and equipment. All by direct agreement. Date foreseen for financial decision September '83. 4th EDF.

★ **Line of credit for the Neth. Antilles Development Bank.** Resp. Auth.: Dev. Bank (OBNA). Line of credit for the promotion of crop-farming, stock farming and fisheries. Date foreseen for financial decision September '83. 4th EDF.

FRENCH POLYNESIA

Tahiti territorial abattoir. Resp. Auth.: Service de l'Economie Rurale, Papeete (Tahiti). Secrétariat d'Etat des Départements et Territoires d'Outre-Mer, Délégation de la Polynésie Française, Paris. Cofinancing with France. Project on appraisal. 4th EDF.

Gas-generators and electro-generators powerstations in the Touamotou Islands. Resp. Auth.: Assemblée Territoriale des Touamotou. 0.460 mECU. Supply of gas-generators fed with charcoal from coconut waste and coco-trees wood waste. Int. tender foreseen 2nd half 83. Date foreseen for financial decision 3rd or 4th quarter 83. 4th EDF.

NEW CALEDONIA

Loyauté Islands water supply. Resp. Auth.: Direction Territoriale des Services Ruraux. 0.900 mECU. Constructions and drills and small water supply networks. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

Reafforestation programme. Resp. Auth.: Territoire de la Nouvelle Calédonie des Eaux et Forêts. Estimated total cost 4.7 mECU. EDF part ± 3 mECU. Cofunding with France, CCCE (F) and Local. 3,000 ha plantation "Pin de Caraïbes" with all necessary infrastructure and investments. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Veterinary laboratory and zoosanitary investigation. Total estimated cost 1.5 mECU. EDF 0.350 mECU. Territoire and FIDES 1.150 mECU. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

CAYMAN ISLANDS

New airport terminal. Resp. Auth.: Public Works Department. Estimated Cost 0.600 ECU. Construction of terminal. Project in execution. 4th and 5th EDF.

TURKS AND CAICOS ISLANDS

Transport study, North and Middle Caicos. Resp. Auth.: Public Works Department. Wallace Evans and Partners (UK). 5th EDF.

Regional Projects

ETHIOPIA — SUDAN

Telecommunications project. Technical study done by U.I.T. Economical and commercial study to be done. Short-list not yet drawn up. 5th EDF.

O.C.A.M.

Building and equipment of Institut Africain et Mauricien de Statistiques et d'Economie Appliquée in Kigali. Resp. Auth.: I.A.M.S.E.A. Total estimated cost 4.8 mECU. EDF part ± 3 mECU. Pedagogical, administratives and hostel buildings (4,000 m²). Correspondent equipment supply. Date financial decision July 83. Works: int. tender in 83. Supplies by German aid. 5th EDF.

MEMBER COUNTRIES OF ORGANISATION AFRICAINE POUR LA PROPRIETE INTELLECTUELLE (O.A.P.I.)

Building and equipment of Centre Africain de Documentation et Information en matière de Brevets. Resp. Auth.: O.A.P.I. 1.207 mECU. Construction of

1,358 m² of buildings, and supply of equipment. Works: contracts in awarding. Supplies: int. tender 2nd half '83. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

CONGO-GABON

Haut-Ivindo iron mine. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Mines et de l'Energie (Congo) — Ministère des Mines, et du pétrole (Gabon). Total estimated cost 9 mECU. EDF 6.5 mECU EIB 2.5 mECU. Mapping, soil survey, borings. Study to be done. Int. tender (conditional) launched in July 83. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

GABON — SAO TOME-PRINCIPE

Improvement of maritime communication. Resp. Auth.: Secrétariat, d'Etat aux Transport et Communications. Estimated cost ± 2 mECU. Purchase of one ocean-going vessels. Int. tender launched on March 83. Date financial decision June 83. 5th EDF.

MEMBER COUNTRIES OF CEAO

ESITEX Segou (Mali). Resp. Auth.: CEAO Secrétariat. Management training for textile industry. Complex construction in Segou. Supply of equipment. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

Ecole des Mines et de la géologie, Niamey. Resp. Auth.: CEAO Secrétariat. Creation of a school for 350 students coming from CEAO countries. Estimated total cost 28 mECU. EDF 7 mECU. Cofundings with FAC-FAD-D. Project on appraisal. Technical and architectural studies: Groupement Potier et Ass. (F) and Goudiaby (ACP.). 5th EDF.

GAMBIA — SENEGAL (O.M.V.G.)

Bridge barrage on the river Gambia. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Works and Ministère des Travaux Publics. Estimated cost in 78: 60 mECU. Foreseen funding: F.R.G. 20 mECU. Canada 21.7 mECU, USA 11/22 mECU. Technical study: DHV-Rijkswaterstaat-Waterloopkundig Laboratorium Delft (NL). For Phase I — Phase II: Rhein-Ruhr (D). Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

Agronomical study for the area concerned by the bridge barrage. Short-list already drawn up. 5th EDF.

GUYANA — SURINAM

Guyana — ferry-link. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Public Works and Ministerie van Openbare Werken. Link ferry on Corentine river. Study on the way by C.A. Liburd and Ass. + Sescon Group (ACP). Project on appraisal. 4th EDF.

BENIN — IVORY COAST — NIGER — TOGO — UPPER VOLTA

Regional training centre for road maintenance in Lomé-Togo. (CERFER). Resp. Auth.: Secrétariat CERFER. Training. T.A. and scholarships. Estimated cost 0.900 mECU. Project stage identification. 3rd, 4th and 5th EDF.

RWANDA — ZAIRE

Methane gas from Lake Kivu. Resp. Auth.: CEPGL and Commission mixte de 2 pays. Pre-feasibility study done. (Studies 4th EDF). Feasibility study foreseen with EDF, EIB fundings: for 2 stations with urea unit, compressed gas and methane. Pre-qualifica-

tion launched in July 83. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

NIGER BASIN AUTHORITY

Protection and reafforestation in the "Haut Bassin Versant du fleuve Niger in Guinea". Works, supplies and T.A. Estimated total cost 1.5 mECU. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

MEMBER COUNTRIES OF CIADFOR

Extension of A.N.F.P.P. (Agence Nationale de formation et de Perfectionnement Professionnels) in Libreville. Extension and modernization and new complex building in Oloumi. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

SENEGAL — GUINEA

Tambacounda-Labe road. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Travaux Publics. Upgrading and asphaltting of the road (455 km). Economic study: SONED (SE). Technical study to be done. Short list not yet drawn up. Project on appraisal. 4th EDF.

FRENCH SPEAKING AFRICAN AND INDIAN OCEAN ACP COUNTRIES

Ecole de statistiques d'Abidjan. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Plan et de l'Industrie. Total estimated cost 3.7 mECU. EDF 2 mECU. Ivory Coast 1.7 mECU. Construction and equipments. Architectural study: Bureaux DLM. Architects and Cabinet ARCAUD (ACP). Project on appraisal. 4th EDF.

WESTERN SAMOA — FIJI — SOLOMON — KIRIBATI — TUVALU — PAPUA NEW GUINEA — TONGA

Renewable energy development project in the South Pacific. Resp. Auth.: SPEC (South Pacific Bureau for Economic Cooperation). 6.2 mECU. Creation of pilot units for ocean energy, gas, small stations 25 kW fed with wood waste. Photovoltaic generators 20 kW and wind-generators 15 kW. Prefeasibility study on the way: LAHMEYER and DORNIER (D). Works, supply and T.A. Supplies: int. tender 2nd half 1983. T.A.: 2nd half 83. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

TOGO — MALI — UPPER VOLTA — NIGER — CHAD

Agricultural products regional transit centre, in the Lome port. Resp. Auth.: Ministères du Plan. Estimated total 7 mECU with cofunding. Technical and economic feasibility study: Bureau SATEC (F). Project stage: identification. 4th and 5th EDF.

SOUTHERN AFRICA

Foot-and-mouth disease prevention. Resp. Auth.: Development Committee. Study to be done: Feasibility. Short-list already drawn up. Project stage: identification. 4th EDF.

PACIFIC ACP COUNTRIES

Forum Fisheries Agency Headquarters. Resp. Auth.: South Pacific Bureau for Economic Cooperation (SPEC). 0.650 mECU. Creation of an international fisheries resources management agency. Works by acc. tender. Supply of equipment restr. tender. Supply of computer and data process-

ing equipment, int. tender. Project in execution. 4th and 5th EDF.

SENEGAL — GAMBIA GUINEA BISSAU

Dakar — Banjul — Bissau Road. Resp. Auth.: Ministères Travaux Publics of the 3 countries. Asphalted road between Mandina Ba (Gambia) and Sao Vicente (Guinea Bissau). 129 km. Estimated cost 35 mECU. EDF 10 mECU. Technical study: Associated Eng. (I.). Project on appraisal. Works: int. tender launched in July 83 conditional upon provisional finance. Date foreseen for financial decision September '83. 5th EDF.

MEMBER COUNTRIES OF CEAO AND CILSS

Construction of Centre Régional d'Énergie Solaire (CRES) in Bamako, Mali. Estimated total cost 30 mECU. EDF part. 3.07 mECU. T.A. and equipment. Project on appraisal. T.A.: short-list not yet drawn up. Date foreseen for financial decision September '83. 5th EDF.

MEMBER COUNTRIES OF CILLS

Provisional survey of natural renewable resources in the Sahel. Resp. Auth.: CILLS Secretariat. Estimated cost 6 mECU. EDF ± 1.5 mECU. Setting up of an observation unit to forecast crop production. Remote sensing by satellite, air survey and ground control. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

Project to improve the means of monitoring on a permanent basis agricultural production and stock-raising. Resp. Auth.: CILLS secretariat. Estimated cost 2.6 mECU. Studies for means to produce, collect and treat agricultural production and stock-raising data. T.A., vehicles and data collecting and processing equipment. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

Millet, maize, sorghum and niébé project. Resp. Auth.: CILLS Secretariat. Estimated cost 2 mECU. To provide improved varieties for farmers. Local tests. Purchase of vehicles and equipment and to take charge for local tests control staff. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

Setting up of a system to estimate cereal stocks in private hands. Resp. Auth.: CILLS Secretariat. Estimated cost 1 mECU. EDF 0.5 mECU FAC 0.5 mECU. Creation of a system to monitor permanently the global availability of food stocks. T.A. and equipment. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

Fight against drought in the Sahel. Resp. Auth.: CILLS Secretariat. Estimated cost 1 mECU. T.A. and experts for the CILLS Executif Secretariat. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

Regional coordination of food production and distribution of improved cooking stoves. Resp. Auth.: CILLS Secretariat. Studies on food marketing, pricing and trading. Studies and aids for improved cooking stoves distribution. Estimated cost 0.276 mECU. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

MEMBER COUNTRIES OF U.A.P.T.

Satellite telecommunications project. Resp. Auth.: U.A.P.T. Secretariat in Brazzaville. R.P.C. Parametric study on the way

by national organisations of I, UK, F and D. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

MEMBER COUNTRIES OF ECOWAS

Wireless beam telecommunications. Resp. Auth.: Ecowas Secretariat. Estimated cost 32 mECU. EDF 5 mECU. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

EASTERN AFRICA COUNTRIES

Statistical training centre for eastern africa in Tanzania. Resp. Auth.: Secretariat of the centre. 2.0 mECU. Widening of the capacity. Construction of class-room, offices and housing. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

DJIBOUTI — ETHIOPIA — KENYA — SUDAN — SOMALIA — TANZANIA — UGANDA

Prevention against noxious migratory animals in eastern africa. Resp. Auth.: Desert Locust Control Organization for eastern africa. Construction of buildings, storage, for pesticide, aircrafts, equipment for vaporization, vehicles and T.A. Total estimated cost 6.634 mECU. EDF 3.3 mECU int. tender for equipment hangar in Nairobi launched. Other int. tenders in 83. T.A.: Centre for overseas Pest Research (UK). 5th EDF.

KENYA — TANZANIA

Regional Health Improvement Project. Resp. Auth.: Ministries of Health. Estimated cost 1.6 mECU. Extension of the regional centre at Nairobi and construction of a centre in Dar-es-Salam, T.A. Works: acc. tender. Contracts: direct agreement. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

ZAMBIA — KENYA — UGANDA — SUDAN

Field-oriented research on control of tsetse and livestock ticks of the International centre of insect physiology and ecology (ICIPE) Nairobi-Kenya. 4.4 mECU. EDF part 1.5 mECU. Cofunding with: UNDP-USAID-Switzerland and Netherlands. Supply of equipment. TA: G.T.Z. (D) Project in execution. 5th EDF.

KENYA — GAMBIA — SENEGAL

Ndama production research. Estimated total cost 13.620 mECU. EDF 2.5 mECU other sources ODA, Af.D.B. FAO. Research project to be implemented by ILRAD-ILCA (International Livestock Centre for Africa and International Laboratory for Research on Animal diseases). Supplies, T.A. and training. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

MEMBER COUNTRIES OF SADCC (South African development coordination conference)

Faculty of Veterinary Sciences University of Zimbabwe. Total estimated cost 9 mECU. EDF part estimated at 5 mECU. Construction of a new veterinary faculty as a regional institution within the existing university of Zimbabwe. Works and supplies. Project stage identification. Study on the way by Ove Arup and Partners (ACP). 5th EDF.

T.A. for the SADCC Secretariat. Resp. Auth.: SADCC Secretariat in Gaborone. Botswana. 2 m ECU. Advisory Staff, consultancies, support staff. Decisions for contracts

will be signed between SADCC and CEC. Date financial decision January 83. 5th EDF.

SWAZILAND — LESOTHO

Matsapha Airport. Construction of a control tower, equipment and T.A. Estimated total cost: 31 mECU. EDF 2.1 mECU. Date financial decision July 83. 5th EDF.

BOTSWANA — LESOTHO — MALAWI — SWAZILAND

Multi-country post-telecommunication training scheme. Resp. Auth.: Postmaster general of 4 countries. 0.650 mECU. Training and supply of equipment. T.A. managed by I.T.U. Supplies: int. tender. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

MEMBER COUNTRIES OF CARICOM

Development of the regional trade promotion services in the Caribbean region. Resp. Auth.: Caricom Secretariat. 1.8 mECU. T.A. project. Contract: direct agreement. 5th EDF.

Assistance to Caribbean Agricultural Research and Development Institute (CARDI). Resp. Auth.: CARDI Secretariat. EDF part 3.035 mECU. T.A. equipment and training. T.A.: Short-list already drawn up. 5th EDF.

Windward Islands fishing boat project. Resp. Auth.: Caricom Secretariat. Estimated cost 0.345 mECU. EDF part 0.275 mECU and 0.070 mECU from sales of boats. Equipment and TA for the construction of about 100 fishing boats and workshop installation. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Regional hotel trade school in St Lucia. Resp. Auth.: Caricom Secretariat. Estimated total cost 0.900 mECU. EDF 0.200 mECU. Work financed locally. EDF part: supply of pedagogical equipment, furniture and 1 vehicle. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

Regional poultry project. Resp. Auth.: Caribbean Food Corporation (CFC) and Government of Barbados. Total estimated cost 4.147 mECU. EDF 2.823 mECU. Constructions, equipments and T.A. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

Regional marketing of agricultural inputs. Resp. Auth.: Caribbean Food Corporation (CFC). 2.3 mECU. Supply of fertilizers and seeds. Works and equipments. Supplies: int. tender in 83. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

Research development in the Caribbean region. (CTRC). Resp. Auth.: Caricom Secretariat 4.100 mECU. T.A. marketing and tourism promotion. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

Regional tourism promotion study. Resp. Auth.: Caricom Secretariat. Caribbean Tourist Association. 0.800 mECU. Studies tourist promotion. Short-lists not yet drawn up. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

★ **Assistance for Point-Salines International Airport-Grenada.** Resp. Auth.: Caricom Secretariat and Grenada Int. Airport Authority. EDF part 1.740 mECU, T.A. and supply of radio and electronic navigational equipment. T.A. by direct agreement. Equipment by int. tender. Date foreseen for financial decision September '83. 5th EDF.

TANZANIA (BURUNDI — RWANDA — ZAIRE — ZAMBIA)

Tanzania Railways Corporation Project (T.R.C.). 10 mECU. Maintenance and improvement of the railway. Works, supply of equipment. Supply: int. tender launched in May '83 Supervision of works: short list not yet drawn up. 4th EDF.

BURUNDI — RWANDA — TANZANIA — ZAIRE — ZAMBIA

Dar es Salam port project. Improvement of the transit goods handling facilities, for the Central Corridor transports. Supply of equipment and T.A. Estimated cost. 2 mECU. Int. tender launched on March 83 conditional upon provisional finance. Date foreseen for financial decision September '83. 5th EDF.

TANZANIA — UGANDA

Transport project Lake Victoria. Improvement of the existing wagon ferry terminal facilities in Jinja, Mwanza, Bukoba and Musoma ports. 2 mECU. Int. tender launched on March 83 conditional upon provisional finance. Date foreseen for financial decision September '83. 5th EDF.

KENYA — UGANDA — RWANDA — BURUNDI

25 tankcars for the Uganda Railways. Resp. Auth.: Uganda Railways Corporation. Estimated cost 2.5 mECU. Int. tender conditional upon provisional finance launched in July 83. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

MEDITERRANEAN COUNTRIES

ALGERIA

Scientific cooperation programme with O.N.R.S. and trainers' training. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur et de la Recherche Scientifique (M.E.S.R.S.) 4.3 mECU. Scholarships, T.A. experts and supply of equipment. For scientific equipment int. tender launched in July 83.

Training of technicians for rural development and hydraulics. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. 1.440 mECU. T.A. and training. For T.A.: int. tender after pre-qualification. Project on appraisal.

EGYPT

Soil improvement programme in Kafrel-Sheikh Governorate. Resp. Auth.: Executive Authority for Land Improvement Projects (EALIP). Provisional amount 8 mECU. To reclaim an area of 65 000 acres of saline soil, located in Hamoul district of the Kafrel-Sheikh Governorate. Short-list already drawn up. Project in execution.

Improved of agricultural input storage facilities in the Daqhalia Governorate. Resp. Auth.: Principal Bank for Development and Agricultural Credit. EEC Contribution 6 mECU. Construction of 13 new ware houses on prefabricated steel of 1 700 m² each providing a total capacity of 27 000 T. Works: int. tender foreseen in 3rd or 4th quarter '83.

Egyptian Renewable Energy Development Organisation. EREDO. Resp. Auth.: Egyptian Government. Estimated total cost 10.74 mECU. EEC contribution 7.7 mECU. Construction and equipment for the centre. Works and supplies: int. tender in '83. Date foreseen for financial decision 2nd half 83.

JORDAN

2 Trade Training Centres (TTC). Resp. Auth.: National Planning Council (NPC) and Vocational Training Corporation. Cost estimate 1.2 mECU for EEC. The TTCs offer apprenticeship in cooperation with local trade and industry. One TTC for about 400 boys at Zarqa. One TTC for about 400 girls in Amman. Buildings to be financed by Jordan. Training and TA programmes also. Study to identify and define project, TEMA Consultant (I). Supply: int. tender for Zarqa launched February '82. Project in execution.

LEBANON

Industrial planning and industrial census. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Industrie. 0.518 mECU. Foreign expert to supervise local experts for census. Mission in Lebanon 2 months EEC contribution covers all expenses for foreign expert and $\pm 50\%$ of total cost of the project. Project on appraisal.

Aid for the Union Nationale de Crédit Coopératif (UNCC). 1.4 mECU. Line of credit to the UNCC and T.A.

Document automatization for the Chambre de Commerce et de l'Industrie de Beyrouth (CCIB). Resp. Auth.: C.C.I.B. 0.24 mECU. Supply and T.A. For equipment int. tender in '83. T.A.: M. Savitsky (F).

MALTA

Upgrading St Lukes's Hospital radiology department. Training, TA and supply of equipment. Estimated cost 1.23 mECU. Int. tender for equipment foreseen in September 83.

MOROCCO

Interventions for Laboratoire de Technologie des céréales de Rabat. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. 0.790 mECU. Equipment, T.A. and training. Supply by restr. tender or direct agreement. T.A.: short-list not yet drawn up.

TUNISIA

Participation to create 3 Training Vocational Centres: in Nabeul, Menzel-Bourguiba, Zaghouan. Resp. Auth.: O.T.T.E.E.F.P. (Office des Travailleurs Tunisiens à l'Etranger de l'Emploi et de la Formation Professionnelle.) EEC Contribution 3.870 mECU. Supply of equipment, T.A. and training. Supplies: int. tender for Menzel-Bourguiba launched in October 82. T.A.: A.A.B. (D).

Technical and scientific cooperation. Marine science. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur et de la Recherche Scientifique. 0.240 mECU. Supply of equipment, training and T.A. Supplies: int. tender and direct agreement. T.A. and training: direct agreement. Date financial decision July 83.

TURKEY

Electricity transmission line project. Resp. Auth.: Turkish Electricity Authority. (TEK). Estimated cost 72 mECU. EEC 16 mECU. Upgrading of existing transmission lines and supply of equipment. Construction of new transmission lines. Italian aid foreseen for 5.2 mECU. Supply and works: int. tenders in '83. Project on appraisal.

Non-associated developing countries

ANGOLA

Rehabilitation of ARAN and SOMAR Fish Processing Plants at Moçâmedes. Resp. Auth.: Ministerio das Pescas. 2.250 m ECU. T.A. and equipment for SOMAR and equipment, supervision of works and T.A. for ARAN. Project in execution. Supplies: int. tender launched on June '83.

Integrated fishery and fish processing plant in the province of Namibe. Resp. Auth.: Ministerio das Pescas. 6.5 mECU. Rehabilitation, equipments and T.A. Int. tender launched on June 83. Project in execution.

MOZAMBIQUE

Artisanal Fisheries Development. Resp. Auth.: Secretary of State for Fisheries. 2.958 m ECU. Provision of fishing material and other supplies for artisanal fisheries. T.A. Project in execution.

Potatoes seed production project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 7.100 mECU. Works, supplies, equipments, training and T.A. Supplies: int. tender. Date financial decision May 83. Technical study: K.W.S. (D).

BANGLADESH

Tea rehabilitation project. Resp. Auth.: Bangladesh Tea Board (BTB). EEC 6.6 mECU, UK and Local 55.68 mECU. Purchase of machinery for tea factories. Call for quotation in EEC member states and Indian subcontinent in 1983.

Small-scale irrigation sector project. Resp. Auth.: Bangladesh Water Development Board (BWDB). Estimated total cost 82 mECU. EEC contribution 12 mECU. Cofinancing with ADB (Asian Dev. Bank). Works, supply of equipment and vehicles, T.A. and supervision. Works: acc. tender. Supplies: int. tender, 2nd half '83.

Building of storage for fertilizers. Resp. Auth.: Bangladesh Agricultural Development Corporation (BADC). Cofinancing: EEC and Netherlands. Total cost 4 mECU. EEC 2 mECU Netherlands 2 mECU. EEC part: Works by int. tender. Netherlands part: buildings and T.A.

Supply of fertilizers. Resp. Auth.: BADC. EEC 15 mECU int. tender 2nd half 83. Financial decision July 83.

Bhola irrigation project. Resp. Auth.: Bangladesh Water Development Board

(BWDB). Estimated total cost 44.4 mECU. EEC 3 mECU. Parallel cofunding with A.D.B. (Asian Dev. Bank). Works, equipment and supply of vehicles, pumps and fuel. T.A. and training. Project in execution.

BHUTAN

Plant protection services. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Development (Agricultural Department). 3.4 mECU. Building of laboratories, equipments training and T.A. Works: acc. tender. Supplies: int. tender or direct agreement. Project in execution.

BURMA

Palm oil development. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture and Forest. Estimated cost: 16.3 mECU. Financing: EEC 4.9 mECU. Switzerland and local 11.4 mECU. Expanding production for domestic consumption. Supplies and T.A. Supply: int. tender in 83. T.A.: shortlist already drawn up.

INDONESIA

Baturraden Dairy Development. Resp. Auth.: D.G. for livestock services. Estimated cost: 8.385 mECU. EEC 4.4 mECU, Italy 0.410 mECU. Construction, infrastructure, supply of equipment, T.A. Works and supplies: int. tender 2nd half '83. T.A.: IFA-GRARIA (I).

Bali Irrigation Sector Project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Public Works. DG for Water Resources Development. EEC 12 mECU. ADB±37 mECU. Local ±55 mECU. Rehabilitation and expansion of 50 village-level irrigation scheme, establishment of a water-management training centre, and establishment of climatological stations. T.A. Works: acc. tender.

T.A. to Bank Indonesia for SEDP II. Resp. Auth.: Bank Indonesia. Total estimated cost 12.5 mECU. EEC 8.3 mECU. Local 4.2 mECU. Expatriates and local consultants. T.A. and training in Bank Indonesia regional offices to implement Bank's large ongoing programme of small-scale credits. Consultants will be contracted by Bank Indonesia, after approval by the Commission, on the basis of tender or mutual agreement procedures. Project in execution.

Pilot Project for Artisanal Fisheries in East Java. Resp. Auth.: Directorate General of Fisheries (DGF). Total cost 4.880 mECU. Parallel cofinancing with Italy. EEC 3.178 mECU. Italy 0.876 mECU, Local 0.826 mECU. Works, equipment and supplies. Works by direct labour. Supplies: int. tender and direct agreement. Supply of refrigeration equipment: Italy. T.A.: direct agreement. Project in execution.

★ **Madura groundwater development.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Public Works. DG for Water Resources Dev. Total cost 19.3 mECU. EEC part 13.10 mECU, U.K. 2 mECU, Local 4.2 mECU. EEC part: supply of pumps, drilling equipment, vehicles, casing and screening and local T.A. U.K. part: expatriate T.A. Supplies: int. tender. Date foreseen for financial decision October '83.

INDIA

Supply of fertilizers. Resp. Auth.: Minerals and Metals. Trading Corporation of India. MMTC. 45 mECU. Int. tender in 83. Project in execution.

Pilot project for village trout fish farming in Jammu and Kashmir. Resp. Auth.: Department of Fisheries of Jammu and Kashmir. EEC 1 mECU. Local 0.370 mECU. Works, equipment, T.A. and training. Works by direct labour or acc. tender. Supplies: restr. tender with specialized companies. T.A.: direct agreement after short-list. Date financial decision July 83.

PAKISTAN

Solar energy for rural areas. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Petroleum and Natural Resources (DGER). EEC 1.8 mECU. Supply of solar power stations. Int. tender foreseen 2nd half 83.

Karachi fishing port. Resp. Auth.: Fishery department of the Sind Province. Estimated cost 12 mECU. New facilities: quay, boat repair yard, fish-shed, dredging. Rehabilitation of existing facilities, equipments and T.A. TA: int. tender after prequalification. Works and supplies in '83.

NEPAL

Rural water supply and health infrastructure. Resp. Auth.: MPLD (Ministry of Panchayat and Local Development) and DWSS (Department of water supply and sewage). 4.8 mECU. EEC 3.7 mECU Local 1.1 mECU. Supply of equipment (pipes, tubes, manual-pumps, vehicles) and T.A. Management by UNICEF for EEC contribution. Supplies: int. tender or direct agreement. Date foreseen for financial decision 2nd half 83.

SRI LANKA

Integrated rural development in the Mahaweli Ganga region. Resp. Auth.: Mahaweli Development Board (MDB). Estimated cost 9 mECU, EEC 2 mECU. Development of 2 326 ha irrigated land and rehabilitation of 1 910 ha deteriorated land. Socio-economical infrastructure to allow settlement of 12 000 rural families. TA: FAO. Project in execution.

Eastern Region rehabilitation project. Ministry of Coconut Industries. EEC 3 mECU, Italy 0.375 mECU, small UK and FAO contributions, balance up to 7 mECU financed by Sri Lanka government. Rehabilitation of coconut plantations devastated by a cyclone and diversification of agriculture in the same region. Feasibility study financed by Italian bilateral aid executed by AGROTEC (I). Works: direct labour. Project in execution. Int. tender for supplies launched on June 83.

THAILAND

Cooperation training and marketing. Resp. Auth.: National Economic and Social Development Board (NESDB) and Bank for Agriculture and Agricultural Cooperation (BAAC). EEC 3.037 mECU. To provide training facilities for the personnel of agricultural cooperatives and equipment for cooperative marketing unit. Int. tender in '83 for supplies. T.A.: Clear unit (UK).

Rubber smallholdings yield improvement. Resp. Auth.: Rubber Research Centre (RCC). Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives. EEC 1.8 mECU, Local 1.8 mECU. To introduce and popularize new tapping techniques to improve the yield of old rubber trees before their felling. TA: Harrison Fleming (UK). Supplies: int. tender launched November 82. Tenders in mid '83, '84.

Seed production centre for the Southern Region. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture, Estimated Cost: 3 mECU. EEC 2.2 mECU. Construction of a centre for the production and distribution of improved qualities of rice seeds. Equipments and T.A. Works and infrastructure: acc. tender. Equipments: int. tender in '83. T.A.: Euroconsult (NE).

Oilseed crop development programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture — Oil seed Project Steering Committee. Total estimated cost 4.2 mECU. EEC 3.3 mECU. T.A. and supply of equipment. T.A.: Short-list not yet drawn up.

Sukhothai groundwater development. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture — Royal Irrigation Department (R.I.D.). Total cost 25.600 mECU. Parallel cofinancing with UK. EEC 13.40 mECU, UK 1.30 mECU. Local 10.90 mECU. EEC contribution: pumps, vehicles and instrumentation, casing, screening and PVC piping and short term T.A. Int. tender and direct agreement. UK contribution full cost of longterm and shortterm T.A. for project guidance and supervision. Local: works except drills, T.A. local costs and operating costs. Project in execution. Int. tender for equipment launched on June 83.

★ **Agricultural cooperatives training.** Resp. Auth.: National Cooperative Development Committee (NCDC) and National Agricultural Cooperative Training Institute (NACTI). Total cost 7.88 mECU. EEC 5.44 mECU. EEC part: supply of equipment (vehicles, pick-up, motorcycles; projectors, tape-recorders and video equipment) by int. tender. T.A. Date foreseen for financial decision September '83.

THE PHILIPPINES

Palawan integrated area development. Resp. Auth.: National Council on Integrated Area Development (NACIAD). Total cost 78 mECU, EEC contribution 7.1 mECU, ADB 43.05 mECU and GOP 27.85 mECU. Small-scale irrigation works, agricultural intensification and diversification, livestock, transport development, health facilities, training and monitoring. Project duration 1982-1988. Works: partly int. tender, partly direct agreement or acc. tender. Supplies: int. tender or direct agreement. Administrative arrangements, excluding EEC int. tenders, concern full responsibility of ADB. T.A.: short-list already drawn up.

ASIAN DEVELOPMENT BANK (ADB)

Study programme — ADB. Resp. Auth.: ADB. EEC 1 mECU. Studies in the Asian non associated countries. Contract awarded after int. tender concerning EEC consultants and non associated eligible consultants.

ASEAN

Regional collaborative programme on grain post-harvest technology. Resp. Auth.: Sub-committee on Food Handling (SCFH). Cost 4.3 mECU. EEC 4.3 mECU. T.A., training and research. For supplies: int. tender or direct agreement to be determined. T.A. to be decided by S.C.F.H. Short-list not yet drawn up.

INTERIM MEKONG COMMITTEE

T.A. to Mekong Secretariat. Resp. Auth.: Mekong Secretariat. 0.75 mECU. Ex-

perts recruitment to prepare irrigated agriculture and forestry projects. Supply of equipment and materials. T.A. contracts by the Mekong Secretariat after CCE approval. Financial decision July 83.

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

T.A. for agrarian reform and integrated rural development. Resp. Auth.: Instituto Agrario Dominicano (I.A.D.). Total cost 13.6 mECU, EEC 12 mECU, Local 1.6 mECU. Infrastructure, equipments, T.A. and training. Supplies: int. tender or acc. tender or direct agreement. Works: direct labour or acc. tender. T.A.: short-list already drawn up. Project in execution.

OLADE (LATIN AMERICAN ORGANIZATION FOR ENERGY DEVELOPMENT)

Pre-feasibility study for geothermics in Haiti. Resp. Auth.: OLADE. EEC 0.530 mECU, Haiti 0.070 mECU. Contract. B.R.G.M. (F).

HAITI

Integrated rural development of Asile region. Présidence de la République. Estimated cost: 12 mECU. Foreseen financing: EEC 5 mECU, IDB 7 mECU. Feeder roads, rural monitoring, irrigation, social infrastructure. Works by direct labour. Supply: int. tender in '84.

Integrated rural development of Jeremy region. Resp. Auth.: Présidence de la République. Total cost 7.4 mECU, EEC 6.6 mECU, Local 0.800 mECU. T.A. works, equipments and training. T.A.: contracts made by the Commission after government agreement. Supplies: int. tender. Works: direct labour. Project in execution.

NICARAGUA

T.A. for agrarian reform and integrated rural development. Resp. Auth.: Ministerio de la Agricultura e de la Reforma Agraria (MIDINRA). Total cost 12 mECU. EEC 9.8 mECU. Local 2.2 mECU. Infrastructure, equipments and T.A. Equipments: int. tender. T.A.: short-list already drawn up. Project in execution.

Waslala regional development. Resp. Auth.: MIDINRA. Total cost 8.5 mECU. EEC 3.5 mECU. Local 5 mECU. Road infrastructure and social. Supply of agricultural equipment. T.A. Roads by direct labour. Supplies: int. tender or acc. tender or direct agreement. T.A.: AGRER (B). Works: direct labour or acc. tender. Project in execution.

Crop development. Resp. Auth.: Ministerio de la Agricultura e de la Reforma Agraria (MIDINRA). Total estimated cost 19.930 mECU. EEC 7.400 mECU. Studies, monitoring, training, supply of equipment and T.A. Supply: int. tender or acc. tender according to importance or urgency. Contract: CONSULINT (I). Project in execution.

NICARAGUA — HONDURAS

Bridges reconstruction. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Public Works. 3.2 mECU. Reconstruction of 3 bridges. Works, T.A. and site supervision. Date foreseen for financial decision 2nd half 83.

BOLIVIA

Irrigation Programme Altiplano-Valles

(Cochabamba). Resp. Auth.: Service National de Développement Communautaire (S.N.D.C.). Cost: 9 mECU. EEC 2 mECU, KFW (F.R.G.) 6 mECU, Local 1 mECU. Construction of small dams and irrigation canals. Works by direct labour.

Rural microprojects. Resp. Auth.: Corporation de Développement de Potosi (CORDEPO) and Corporation de Développement d'Oruro (CORDEOR). Total cost 18 mECU. EEC 16 mECU. Drinking water supply, roads, lines of credit, T.A., training. Works by direct labour or acc. tender. Supplies: int. tender or acc. tender. T.A.: direct agreement by CCE. Financial decision July 83.

HONDURAS

T.A. for agrarian reform and integrated rural development. Resp. Auth.: Instituto Nacional Agrario (I.N.A.). Total cost 17.7 mECU. EEC 16.9 mECU. Local 0.8 mECU. Infrastructure, supplies, equipments and T.A. Works by direct labour or acc. tender. Supplies: int. tender or acc. tender or direct agreement. T.A.: BOOM (NL). Project in execution.

COUNTRIES MEMBERS OF PACTO ANDINO

Technical cooperation (industry and economical planning). Resp. Auth.: Junta del Acuerdo de Cartagena, Lima-Peru. Estimated total Cost: 1.7 mECU. EEC 1.1 mECU. To place experts, equipment and T.A. and training at Junta's disposal. Contracts T.A. and experts by the Junta and the Commission of EC.

Andean Programme for technological development (Rural PADT). Resp. Auth.: Junta del Acuerdo de Cartagena, Lima-Peru. Estimated total Cost: 7.560 mECU. EEC 3.927 mECU. Supply of equipment, training and T.A. Vehicles purchase: int. tender. T.A.: Short-lists to be drawn up by the Commission of EC and decision by the Junta.

Energy cooperation. (Analysis and planning). Resp. Auth.: Junta del Acuerdo de Cartagena. Total estimated cost 0.66 mECU. EEC 0.50 mECU. T.A. and Training.

Applied agricultural research (maize and corn). Resp. Auth.: CIMMYT (Centro Internacional de Mejoramiento Maiz y Trigo)

Mexico — Decentralized actions in the andean region. Research and training. 2 mECU. Project in execution.

Regional project for industrial timber promotion. Resp. Auth.: Junta del Acuerdo de Cartagena. Total cost 12.610 mECU. EEC 6 mECU. Industrial promotion, vocational training, rural buildings and housing. T.A. Works: direct labour or acc. tender. Supplies: int. tender or acc. tender or direct agreement. T.A.: choice by the JUNAC on the basis of short-list proposed by CCE. Financial decision July 83.

COSTA RICA — HONDURAS — NICARAGUA — PANAMA — DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

Latin American qualified nationals reinstatement in 5 Central American countries. Resp. Auth.: CIM (Comité Intergouvernemental pour les migrations). 1.4 mECU. Reinstatement of 75 qualified nation-

als via CIM. Date foreseen for financial decision 2nd half 83.

COSTA RICA

T.A. for agrarian reform and integrated rural development. Resp. Auth.: Ministerio de la Agricultura. Total cost 25.8 mECU. EEC 18 mECU. Local 7.8 mECU. Infrastructure, equipment and T.A. Works by direct labour or acc. tender. Supplies: int. tender or acc. tender or direct agreement. T.A.: SCET-AGRI (F). Project in execution.

PERU

★ **Pilot project Majes. Irrigation.** Resp. Auth.: Autoridad Autonoma del Proyecto MAJES (Autodema). Total cost 17 mECU. EEC 5.6 mECU, Italy 2 mECU, Local 9.4 mECU. Supply of equipment and inputs, T.A. and credit system. Date foreseen for financial decision October '83.

CENTRAL AMERICAN ISTHMUS (HONDURAS — PANAMA — NICARAGUA — COSTA RICA)

Support for peasant producer association. Resp. Auth.: Instituto Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas (I.I.C.A.). Total cost 2.9 mECU. EEC contribution 1.6 mECU. Parallel cofinancing with the French Republic and the governments concerned. T.A. and training. T.A. contract: IRAM (F).

YEMEN ARAB REPUBLIC (YAR)

Seed production project. Resp. Auth.: central Agricultural Research Station (CARS). Total cost 6.600 mECU. EEC 5.200 mECU. Construction of 5 centres, supply of equipment, T.A. and training. Works: acc. tender. Supplies: int. tender or direct agreement according to importance. T.A.: K.W.S. (D).

YEMEN (PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC)

Flood damage reconstruction Dhalla. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Irrigation Department. 2.5 mECU. Reconstruction of flood damaged irrigation systems and open wells. Installation of flood-warning system. Supply of equipment. T.A. equipment: int. tender T.A.: on proposal of the Commission after agreement by PDRY Government. Project in execution.

NON ASSOCIATED DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Preparation and follow up of the development project and programmes. Resp. Auth.: Commission of the European Communities. 4 mECU. Study and T.A. Long and short term experts recruitment. Studies. Date foreseen for financial decision, 2nd half 83.

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BOOKS

G. BELLONCLE, P. EASTON, P. IL-BOUDO & P. SENE — **Alphabétisation et gestion des groupements villageois en Afrique sahélienne** (Literacy campaigns and management in village groupings in the Sahel) — Club of Friends of the Sahel (OECD, 2, rue André-Pascal, 75016, Paris, France) and the CILSS (Permanent Inter-State Committee on Drought Control in the Sahel, B.P. 7049, Ouagadougou, Upper Volta) — Editions Karthala, 22-24 bvd Arago, 75013, Paris, France — 270 pages — FF 68 — 1982

Today no one questions the need to create producers' organizations that can act as partners in rural development projects. The countries of the Sahel have learnt from their experience and are now trying to encourage producers to group together on a village basis. But how can they make such groupings fully responsible for their own affairs if the peasants are illiterate and both the terms and the language of accounting are foreign to them?

This book takes a series of practical experiments and shows precisely how it would be possible to produce a simplified system of accounting that the local people could grasp, in each African language, and then to build on the motivation thus created by taking five weeks to teach the group leaders to read and write and train them.

"The involvement of the rural populations in the design, implementation and evaluation of development projects increasingly seems to be the only way of guaranteeing success and one of the few ways of ensuring survival and continuous progress".

Yet encouraging, little-publicized, occasionally original and often piecemeal experiments have been satisfactorily run in a number of countries and some of these are described here in this unique and simply-presented book.

The main lesson to be learned from this set of experiments, as Mali's agriculture minister says in his preface, is that, ultimately, it would not be difficult to train a first batch of of literate people in each village who could then deal with the development organizations, particularly

when it came to transferring the management skills which are the key to the viability of any peasant association.

So this is a work which should be of considerable help to everyone waging the difficult war of rural development. Literacy is vital if peasants in the Sahel are to be on an equal footing as regards getting the projects which are designed and implemented today on their behalf. But the book should also be an invitation to the financing bodies to pay greater attention to capitalizing on human resources in development projects by giving them concrete examples of what they can do.

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Ester BOSERUP — **Women's role in economic development** — Presses Universitaires de France, 108, bvd St Germain, 75006, Paris — 315 pages — FF 145 — 1983

Although the women of the Third World tend to be passed over by the modern sector of agricultural production and industry, they continue to play a vital part in their national economies through their work in food crops and subsistence activities. The value of this work has always been underestimated. Neither the developing countries nor the international organizations can afford to go on ignoring the work force represented by these women, from town and country alike. They could be trained and employed at all levels, thus gradually bringing about an increase in savings and in growth, for making progress in the future.

This is what Ester Boserup tries to illustrate. She is somewhat of a pioneer, in that this is one of the first

books on women from outside the rich countries, and she opens the way for a wealth of scientific (sociological, ethnological and economic) work on these working women of the Third World.

The quality of analysis comes from the wide range of materials and statistics on which it is based and on the finer points of her interpretation, which takes proper account of the complexity of the cultural, geographical and historical context of her subject.

Este Boserup, an economist and teacher at Copenhagen's development institute, is consulted by the major international organizations on anything connected with women and development.

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Jean-Claude KLOTCHKOFF — **Le Niger (Niger)** — Editions Jeune Afrique, 3, rue Roquépine, 75008, Paris — 239 pages — Bfrs 678 — 1982

This well-presented book introduces Niger in words and in pictures, including some very fine photographs of its people and their way of life.

And if you want to visit the country, this book also tells you how to get there, what sort of welcome and facilities to expect, and how to travel around. But all this tourist information is only part of what the book contains, as there are chapters on the people of Niger, on the languages they speak and on their art and culture. There are also details of the economy and a description of some 31 towns. The book is a pleasure to relax with and a practical guide for the tourist.

THE COURIER

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Back cover: Wood carving from Vanuatu (South Pacific). Art and culture can contribute to greater international understanding and so to better cooperation

